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#### 13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 Words)

Homeobox genes represent a class of transcription factors important in embryogenesis, organogenesis, cell growth and differentiation, and cell migration. However, there is little known about their role in regulating endothelial cell (EC) phenotype in response to proangiogenic factors secreted by breast cancer, although at least two homeobox genes (HOXD3 and HOXD10) have been implicated in inducing the angiogenesic phenotype in ECs. We are therefore testing the hypothesis that the homeobox gene Gax regulates breast cancer-induced angiogenesis through its ability to regulate the expression of downstream target genes in ECs. Using in vitro tube formation assays, we have found that Gax expression inhibits in vitro angiogenesis. Moreover, by quantitative real time reverse transcriptase real time PCR, we have found that Gax expression is downregulated by proangiogenic factors, while cDNA micorarray analysis demonstrates that Gax downregulates pro-angiogenic adhesion molecules in ECs and upregulates the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p19<sup>INK4D</sup>. More importantly, Gax expression downregulates NF-kB activity in ECs. These observations will allow us to study the mechanism of Gax-mediated activation or repression of their expression to be studied and will form the basis for future studies that will examine in more detail the mechanism by which Gax activates downstream target genes and the detailed signaling pathways involved in this activation. Given the profound effect Gax has on endothelial cell activation, it is likely that these studies will identify new molecular targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of breast cancer. Ultimately, these same techniques will be applied to other homeobox genes implicated in regulating EC phenotype during breast cancer-induced angiogenesis.

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#### INTRODUCTION

Homeobox genes represent a class of transcription factors important in embryogenesis. organogenesis, cell growth and differentiation, and cell migration (1-6). However, there is little known about their role in regulating endothelial cell (EC) phenotype in response to pro- and antiangiogenic factors secreted by breast cancer cells and the surrounding normal stroma. When we originally submitted our proposal, only two homeobox genes, HOXD3 and HOXB3, had been implicated in regulating tumor-induced angiogenesis (2, 7, 8). Of these and other HOX cluster genes, HOXD3 and HOXD10 expression in vascular ECs have subsequently been correlated with angiogenesis in DCIS and breast cancer (9, 10). Since then, one non-HOX homeobox gene (Hex) has also been implicated by in regulating angiogenesis (2, 10-15). In addition, both before this project and as part of this project, we have developed more evidence implicating another (Gax) (16). Because, of the handful of homeobox genes implicated in regulating angiogenesis, only Gax shows a strong restriction in its expression to cardiovascular tissues in the adult (17, 18), we originally proposed to test the hypothesis that Gax (16-32) regulates breast cancer-induced angiogenesis through its ability to regulate the expression of specific downstream target genes in vascular endothelial cells (ECs) We based this hypothesis on our preliminary data showing that Gax is expressed in vascular ECs and inhibits EC proliferation in vitro (16). Using a quantitative real-time PCR assay (33) and in situ hybridization (9, 10), we proposed to identify proangiogenic and antiangiogenic stimuli that determine Gax modulation and to examine the effect of breast cancer-secreted proangiogenic peptides and and antiangiogenic therapies on Gax expression in vitro and in in vivo models of breast cancer angiogenesis. Next, using an adenovirus expressing Gax (28), we proposed to drive Gax expression in ECs in order to determine the effect of Gax expression on breast cancer angiogenesis, both in vitro and in in vivo models. Finally, because few downstream targets of Gax have been identified (27, 28, 31), we proposed to evaluate changes in global gene expression in ECs that result from Gax expression in order to identify and evaluate likely downstream targets. Our results will form the basis for future studies that will examine in more detail the mechanism by which Gax activates downstream target genes and the detailed signaling pathways involved in this activation. Given the profound effect Gax has on EC activation, it is likely that these studies will identify new molecular targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of breast cancer. Ultimately, these same techniques will be applied to other homeobox genes implicated in regulating EC phenotype during breast cancer angiogenesis.

#### **BODY**

#### Background

In order to grow and metastasize, breast malignancies are critically dependent upon inducing the ingrowth of blood vessels from the host (34, 35). Numerous studies have suggested a correlation between secretion of proangiogenic molecules and increased angiogenesis and increased likelihood of lymph node metastases with poorer prognosis in breast cancer (36, 37). Inhibition of tumor-induced angiogenesis has thus emerged over the last decade as a promising new strategy for breast cancer therapy, either alone or in combination with conventional therapies (38-41). During angiogenesis, whether physiologic or tumor-induced, vascular ECs undergo distinct changes in phenotype and gene expression, including activation of proteolytic enzymes to degrade basement membrane, sprouting, proliferation, tube formation, and production of extracellular matrix (42-44). Although the EC receptors and signaling pathways

activated by proangiogenic factors secreted by breast cancer cells, such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) (45, 46) and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) (45), have been extensively studied (47-49), much less is known about the molecular biology of the downstream transcription factors activated by these signaling pathways, which then activate the genes necessary for EC phenotypic changes during breast cancer-induced angiogenesis.

Homeobox genes encode transcription factors containing a common DNA-binding motif (1, 4-6, 50). Important regulators of body plan and cell fate during embryogenesis, homeobox genes also have pleiotropic roles in many cell types in the adult and can modulate cell cycle progression and arrest, cell differentiation, migration, and apoptosis (1, 3-5, 7, 16, 51, 52). As a gene family, they are thus excellent candidates to be involved in the final transcriptional control of genes responsible for the changes in EC phenotype induced by breast cancer-secreted proangiogenic factors. Until recently, little was known about how homeobox genes might influence angiogenesis. There is now evidence for their involvement in phenotypic changes ECs undergo during angiogenesis, and, in particular, breast cancer angiogenesis (7, 8, 10, 13, 16). For instance, one homeobox gene, HOXD3, induces the expression of  $\alpha_V\beta_3$ , an integrin important in angiogenesis (53), resulting in the conversion of ECs to an angiogenic phenotype both in vitro and in vivo (7); impaired HOXD3 expression is associated with impaired angiogenesis in a mouse model (52) and increased HOXD3 expression is observed in the vasculature of breast cancer and DCIS compared to the vasculature of the surrounding normal breast (9), Similarly, overexpression of the homeobox gene HOXB3 results in an increase in capillary vascular density and angiogenesis (8). Taken together, these data suggest significant roles for specific homeobox genes in responding to extracellular signals and activating downstream genes to induce phenotypic changes associated with breast cancer-induced angiogenesis. More recently, two additional homeobox genes have been implicated in the regulation of EC phenotype during angiogenesis. First, in contrast to HOXB3 and HOXD3, another HOX cluster gene (HOXD10) inhibits EC conversion to the angiogenic phenotype (10). HOXD10 expression is elevated in quiescent vascular endothelium in the stroma compared to breast cancer-associated vascular endothelium (10). Consistent with these observations, in vivo human ECs overexpressing HOXD10 fail to form new blood vessels when embedded in sponges containing Matrigel and proangiogenic factors (10) in nude mice. Second, Hex overexpression in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) inhibits angiogenesis and blocks VEGF receptor signaling (12, 13). Given that previous data showing high levels of Hex expression in proliferating vasculature had suggested that Hex would be more likely to induce EC proliferation and angiogenesis (11, 14, 15), this subsequent observation that Hex inhibits VEGF signaling and angiogenesis suggests a more complex role for this gene in postnatal angiogenesis than previously understood.

The cardiovascular-specific homeobox gene Gax appears more likely to function as a negative regulator of breast cancer-induced angiogenesis in ECs, like HOXD10 or Hex. After isolating it from a rat aorta cDNA library (17, 54), we (and others) have shown that Gax has profound effects on cardiovascular tissues (16, 21, 23, 24, 26-28, 31). In vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) Gax expression is downregulated by mitogenic signals and upregulated by growth arrest signals (17, 32). Consistent with this observation, Gax induces  $G_1$  cell cycle arrest (28) and can induce apoptosis in VSMCs under stress (26). Also, Gax overexpression inhibits VSMC migration, downregulating the expression of integrins,  $\alpha_V\beta_3$  and  $\alpha_V\beta_5$ , both of which are associated with the activated ("synthetic") state in VSMCs and the angiogenic phenotype in ECs (31, 53). In vivo, Gax expression in arteries inhibits proliferative restenosis of the arterial lumen

after injury (23, 24, 27, 28). We now have evidence that Gax mRNA is also expressed in ECs (16). Understanding the actions of Gax on downstream target genes, as well as signals that activate or repress Gax expression, could thus lead to a better understanding of the mechanisms of breast cancer-induced angiogenesis and the identification of new molecular targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of breast cancer.

Little is known about specific transcription factors involved in the control of endothelial cell phenotype during breast cancer-induced angiogenesis, especially transcription factors that inhibit angiogenesis. Gax is a novel homeobox transcription factor (17) whose antiproliferative (31), pro-apoptotic (26), and antimigratory (31) activities were originally characterized by us and others in vascular smooth muscle. Although other homeobox genes have been implicated in promoting or inhibiting EC conversion to the angiogenic phenotype (7, 8, 10, 13, 16), of these Gax is the only homeobox transcription factor described thus far with a potential role in regulating angiogenesis whose expression is largely restricted to the cardiovascular system in the adult (17, 18). It is thus a new and unique candidate transcription factor for regulating EC conversion to the angiogenic phenotype in response to proangiogenic factors secreted by breast tumors. The hypothesis that Gax inhibits the phenotypic changes in ECs that occur when they are stimulated by the proangiogenic factors secreted by breast cancer cells represents an innovative approach to the study of the transcriptional control of EC phenotypic changes during angiogenesis, as does our use of Gax as a molecular tool to study the mechanisms of breast cancer-induced angiogenesis. More importantly, identification of downstream targets of Gax has the potential of identifying previously unsuspected molecular targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of breast cancer and other tumors, leading to new lines of investigation into breast cancer-induced angiogenesis and new therapies based on these observations. Thus, the studies we have proposed and undertaken with support from the Department of Defense have attempted to use Gax as a molecular tool to: (1) enhance our understanding of the mechanisms by breast cancer stimulates endothelial cells to become angiogenic; and (2) provide the basis for the design of antiangiogenic therapies of breast cancer targeting Gax or its downstream targets.

#### Overview of progress over the last year

Since this project began, we have made considerable progress in meeting the milestones originally proposed in our original Statement of Work. Most of the tasks originally proposed are on schedule. Of particular interest, in analyzing our early cDNA microarray experiments, we made the unexpected observation that *Gax* expression downregulates NF-kB-dependent gene expression in ECs (see Task #6). This observation has suggested an entirely new area of research into the mechanism by which *Gax* expression inhibits angiogenesis, as there is now considerable evidence that NF-kB activity is proangiogenic in ECs. Consequently, during Year Two, we formally requested a change in our Statement of Work, which was granted. The changes to the SOW include:

- 1. Eliminating the proposed subtraction hybridization studies. Justification: Given the cDNA microarray results we have developed, these results are redundant, and in any case we have not yet made significant progress on them. We have identified NF-κB pathway as being inhibited by Gax using cDNA microarrays and anticipate that other pathways will be identified as we do more microarray experiments.
- 2. Temporarily suspending work on trying to construct stable transfectants with inducible Gax expression and instead continue our studies using viral constructs. Justification:

Using HMEC-1 cells to make stable transfectants with inducible Gax expression has proven more difficult than anticipated, and we do not presently have cells to use. Consequently, we are in the process of obtaining a different cell line (HPMEC-ST1.6R) to use (55). However, we do not need stable transfectants with inducible Gax expression to do our initial studies on the mechanism by which Gax inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B signaling. Given that investigating this potential interaction seems a more fruitful area to pursue and was identified in studies funded by this Career Development Award, following this lead is appropriate.

- 3. Changing our previously proposed immunohistochemical studies of Gax expression in breast cancer tumor vessels to in situ hybridizations. Justification: Our anti-Gax antibodies have not been staining paraffin-embedded tissue sections well. To address this problem, we have developed a collaboration with Dr. Nancy Boudreau, who has long experience doing in situ hybridizations using homeobox gene probes and is helping us to do in situ hybridizations with a Gax probe we have constructed. We will also do this with the Matrigel plug assays. We note, however, that, since we made this change to the Statement of Work, we have determined that our anti-Gax antibodies will work on frozen sections (see Task #2).
- 1. Adding tasks to Task #6 to investigate the interaction between Gax and NF-κB. Justification: Our preliminary cDNA microarray experiments demonstrate that Gax expression strongly downregulates NF-κB targets. If confirmed by additional experiments, this interaction could represent the primary mechanism by which Gax inhibits angiogenesis and is therefore important to investigate as fully as possible. To this end, we have enlisted the collaboration of Dr. Arnold Rabson, a noted expert in the field of NF-κB functions and mechanisms of activity.
- 5. Altering the timeframe of remaining tasks proposed to be completed by the end of month 24 but not yet completed to encompass the third year. Justification: We believe we can still complete most, if not all, of the remaining tasks (tasks not put aside in favor of studying the Gax-NF-κB interaction) before the end of the final year.

This report will discuss our progress within the context of the new modified Statement of Work that was recently submitted and accepted.

#### Detailed progress report by tasks in the modified Statement of Work

- <u>Task 1</u>: Characterize the regulation of Gax expression in three different endothelial cell types in vitro, months 1 to 24:
- a. Develop and verify real time quantitative reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction assay to measure Gax transcript levels. (Months 1-6.)

Status: Accomplished.

Results and Discussion: This was discussed in detail in our Annual Report for Year One (2003).

a. Measure changes in Gax mRNA levels in three different endothelial cell types in response to growth factors, pro-angiogenic, and antiangiogenic factors. (Months 6-24)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: Using  $\frac{5}{2}$  our quantitative real time reverse transcriptase PCR assay, we completed the *in vitro* experiments and found that, for nearly every breast cancer cell line we have studied, serum-free media conditioned for 24 hours by breast cancer cells strongly downregulated  $G \cdot ax = 20$  expression in ECs within four hours. Two cell lines, MCF7 and MDA-MB231, were as potent as fetal bovine serum in downregulating Gax (Figure 1).

To begin to identify the specific factors secreted by breast cancer cells that are likely to be the ones that result in downregulation of *Gax* expression, we have followed up these observations by

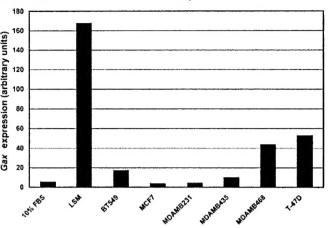
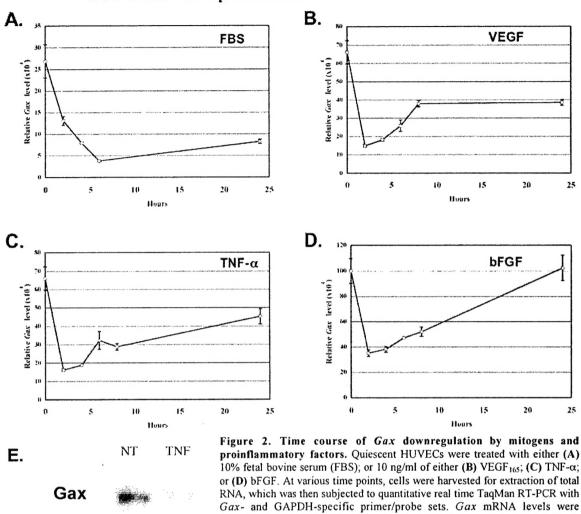


Figure 1. Downregulation of Gax expression in endothelial cells by conditioned medium from tumor cell lines. Quiescent HUVECs were treated with either low serum medium (LSM), 10% FBS, or 10% conditioned medium from the indicated breast cancer cell lines. Cells were harvested 4 hours after stimulation, total RNA harvested and real time quantitative RT-PCR performed. Gax message level was normalized to GAPDH. Units are arbitrary.

examining the effect of VEGF, bFGF, and TNF- $\alpha$  on Gax message levels using quantitative real time PCR (Figure 2). In all cases, Gax was rapidly downregulated and then more slowly returned to baseline after stimulation with proangiogenic factors. First, we studied the time course of Gax downregulation. HUVECs made quiescent by incubation for 24 hrs in 0.1% FBS were stimulated with 10% FBS. Gax was rapidly downregulated by more than 5-fold within four hours and slowly returned to basal over 24 hours (Figure 2A). Conversely, when sparsely plated randomly cycling HUVECs were placed in medium containing 0.1% serum, Gax was upregulated nearly 10-fold within 24 hours (see Manuscript #3, Figure 1, in Appendix). We then stimulated quiescent HUVECs with proangiogenic or proinflammatory factors, including bFGF, VEGF, and TNF- $\alpha$ . Gax was rapidly downregulated with a similar time course (Figure 2, B through D). Similar results were observed in HMEC-1 cells, an immortalized human microvascular endothelial cell line (56) that retains many characteristics of microvascular endothelial cells (data not shown). We are presently repeating these experiments using the endothelial cell line HPMEC1.6R (55).

Finally, we examined whether antiangiogenic peptides that might be used either alone or in combination (57, 58) to treat breast cancer affected Gax expression. Randomly cycling HUVECs were incubated for varying times with 1  $\mu$ g/ml angiostatin (57) or endostatin (58). Cells were harvested for total RNA isolation and the RNA then subjected to quantitative real time PCR to measure Gax expression. We found that both angiostatin and endostatin upregulated Gax expression by two-fold over 48 hours, a time course that was slower and an upregulation that was less dramatic than that caused by serum deprivation (Figure 3). From these results, we are now preparing to test the ability of Gax to block angiogenesis due to breast cancerconditioned media in the Matrigel plug assay, as we have described in Task #4 (see below). Thus far, we have not been able to find a growth stimulus that does not downregulate Gax or a growth arrest stimulus that does not upregulate it. Thus, the promoter mapping experiments originally proposed (Task #1d) will now be given a higher priority.



10% fetal bovine serum (FBS); or 10 ng/ml of either (B) VEGF<sub>165</sub>; (C) TNF-α; or (D) bFGF. At various time points, cells were harvested for extraction of total RNA, which was then subjected to quantitative real time TaqMan RT-PCR with Gax- and GAPDH-specific primer/probe sets. Gax mRNA levels were normalized to GAPDH. Units are arbitrary. E. Cells were treated identically to (C), except that after six hours cells were harvested for protein extraction and then subjected to Western blot with Gax-specific polyclonal antibody.

c. Measure changes in Gax mRNA levels in vitro using three different endothelial cell types in response to common cytotoxic therapies used in breast cancer, including chemotherapy and radiation. (Months 12-36.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: These experiments were deferred in order to study more closely the interaction between Gax and NF- $\kappa$ B (see Task #6). We began these experiments recently, starting with the antiangiogenic factors angiostatin and endostatin, with the plan being to proceed to cytotoxic therapies this summer. We do not yet have reportable data from these experiments, but anticipate finishing them before the end of the grant period.

d. Mechanistic studies to determine if regulation of Gax expression occurs at the level of transcription, translation, or mRNA stability and mapping of the Gax promoter, if necessary. (Months 12-36.)

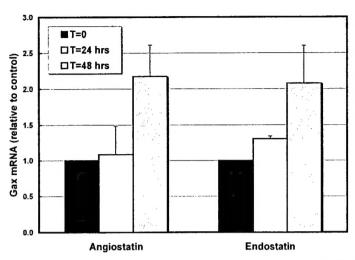


Figure 3. Upregulation of Gax by antiangiogenic peptides. Randomly cycling HUVECs were treated with either angiostatin or endostatin at 1 μg/ml. At varying time points, cells were harvested for RNA isolation, which was then subjected to reverse transcriptase quantitative real time PCR. Gax mRNA levels were normalized to GAPDH and expressed as ratios to Gax levels in control HUVECs allowed to incubate in parallel in normal medium. p<0.01 at 48 hrs for angiostatin and endostatin.

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: These experiments were also deferred in order to study more closely the interaction between Gax and NF-kB (see Task #6) and are therefore behind schedule. We are presently in the early stages of doing these experiments, having recently obtained a series of Gax promoter deletion constructs (19) using Luciferase as the reporter gene to use to identify important elements for regulating Gax expression. We plan to begin these experiments in June and anticipate finishing them before the end of the grant period.

<u>Task 2</u>:Measure differences in Gax expression between

angiogenic blood vessels and normal blood vessels in vivo. (Months 13 to 36.)

a. Measure breast cancer cell line-induced angiogenesis *in vivo* using the Matrigel plug assay and breast cancer cell line-conditioned media, and measure *Gax* expression in endothelial cells *in vivo*. (Months 13-36.)

Status: In progress.

**Results and Discussion:** These results will be discussed together with the results of Task #2b. The experiments described are preliminary experiments in which we have been working out the conditions for our in situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry of frozen tissue sections. See below.

b. Compare immunohistochemical staining for *Gax* expression in breast tumor blood vessels with that of blood vessels found in normal breast for 50 invasive human breast cancer specimens. (Months 13-36.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: In order to determine if Gax expression in vivo varies according to the angiogenic state of the EC, we measured Gax expression in vivo in frozen sections of normal human breast and in human breast cancer by in situ hybridization. We also measured Gax protein expression in the mouse tissues from Matrigel plug experiments. In initial preliminary experiments, we observed Gax message expression in the capillaries and blood vessels of normal breast tissue (Figure 4, A and B). More interestingly, in a human breast cancer specimen (Figure 4C) we could also detect Gax expression in capillaries in the surrounding normal stroma. However, we found very few capillaries or blood vessels in the tumor itself expressing Gax. Consistent with this, by immunohistochemistry in frozen sections we were able to detect Gax

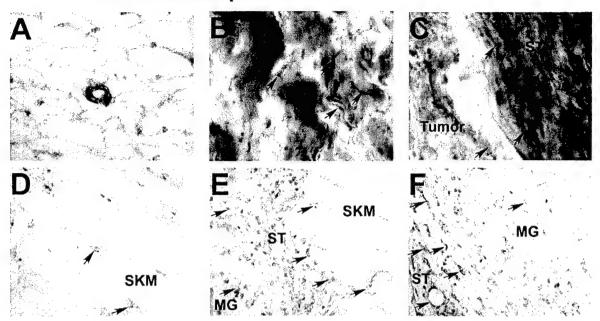


Figure 4. Determination of Gax expression in vivo. Gax expression was measured in human breast and breast cancer specimens by in situ hybridization with a riboprobe for Gax as described in the original grant in Specific Aim #3, p. 45 (A through C) and in Matrigel plugs harvested from mice by immunohistochemistry on frozen sections with previously described anti-Gax antibody (D through F). All photographs were taken at 400x magnification. Arrows indicate blood vessels or capillaries staining positive for Gax expression. (Legend: ST=stroma; SKM=skeletal muscle; MG=Matrigel plug.) A. Normal breast (in situ hybridization). In the fatty tissue of a normal human breast, a blood vessel is observed to stain positive for Gax expression. B. Normal breast (in situ hybridization). Several capillaries stain positive for Gax expression. C. Breast cancer (in situ hybridization). Multiple capillaries in the stroma stain positive for Gax expression. However, capillaries in the tumor either stain much more weakly or do not stain positive for Gax at all. D. Mouse skeletal muscle (immunohistochemistry). Blood vessels in the skeletal muscle near a Matrigel plug stain positive for Gax expression. E and F. Immunohistochemistry of control Matrigel plugs (bFGF only, no virus). Blood vessels in the surrounding skeletal muscle or connective tissue stroma stain strongly for Gax expression, but vessels noted within the Matrigel plugs, where angiogenesis is occurring, stain either weakly or not at all.

expression in blood vessels in the skeletal muscle (Figure 4D) and stroma surrounding the Matrigel plugs (Figure 4, E and F). In contrast, the neovessels we found in the Matrigel plugs either stained weakly for Gax or not at all. We caution that these results are preliminary and considerable work remains over the next year to determine whether Gax message and protein expression is indeed lower in angiogenic vasculature or in breast cancer vasculature than in resting vasculature. In particular, we need to define more carefully what represents positive staining for Gax and then quantify the number of vessels staining positive for Gax. This may require double-staining with antibodies to vascular-specific markers, such as CD31. Also, the frozen sections we obtained from our Tissue Retrieval Service were too thick, hence the poor tissue and cellular definition in Figure 4, A through C. These caveats aside, however, these data do at least suggest that Gax is regulated in vivo in a manner similar to how it is regulated in vitro, further implying a role for Gax in regulating in vivo angiogenesis. We will now use these preliminary results to determine whether Gax expression is downregulated in vivo by breast cancer-secreted angiogenic factors and whether its expression is truly downregulated in vivo in breast cancer- and DCIS-associated vasculature, as originally proposed.

# Task 3: Determine the effects of Gax overexpression in ECs in vitro. (Months 1-24.)

a. Determine effect of *Gax* overexpression on endothelial cell proliferation and expression of cell cycle regulatory genes. (Months 1-12.)

Status: In progress.

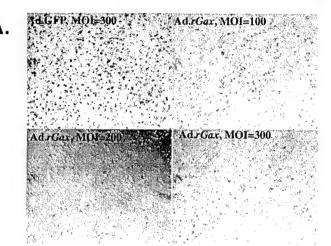
Results and Discussion: These experiments were discussed in more detail in the Annual Report for Year One (2003). Using cDNA microarray experiments, we have identified several cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors that are upregulated by *Gax* expression, including p19<sup>INK4D</sup>, p57<sup>Kip2</sup>, and p21<sup>WAFI/CIP1</sup> (28, 59, 60). These experiments will be described in more detail in Task

#4. The upregulation of these CDK inhibitors suggests redundant mechanisms by which Gax can induce G<sub>1</sub> cell cycle arrest. In Year One, we had also shown that the upregulation of p21 in ECs is due to a p53-independent activity of Gax on the p21<sup>WAF1/CIP1</sup> promoter [(16), in Appendix]. We are presently verifying the upregulation of p57<sup>Kip2</sup> and p19<sup>INK4D</sup>.

a. Determine effect of Gax overexpression on expression of integrins, specifically if the expression of integrins  $\alpha_V \beta_3$  and  $\alpha_V \beta_5$  are regulated by Gax expression (Months 18-36.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: Migration of ECs through the basement membrane and into the surrounding stroma in response to proangiogenic stimuli is a critical step in tumor-induced angiogenesis, and integrins, particularly integrins  $\alpha_V\beta_3$  and  $\alpha_V\beta_5,$  play a critical role in this process (53), as might integrin  $\alpha_5\beta_1$ , which has been implicated in both HOXD3-induced (9) and NFκB-mediated angiogenesis (61). We therefore tested the ability of Gax to inhibit EC migration towards proangiogenic factors. HUVECs were transduced with Ad.rGax or Ad.hGax at varying MOI and



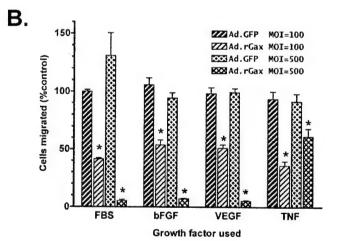


Figure 5. Gax inhibits HUVEC migration towards serum. HUVECs were transduced with varying MOI of either Ad. GFP or Ad. rGax and their migration towards various growth factors and proangiogenic factors determined. Gax inhibits HUVECs migrating towards (A) FBS; and (B) FBS, bFGF, VEGF<sub>165</sub>, and TNF- $\alpha$ . Results are expressed relative to control HUVECs not transduced with any virus. Results were analyzed by one-way ANOVA (\* indicates p<0.01). Similar results were obtained with Ad. hGax (data not shown).

incubated overnight. 10<sup>5</sup> viable cells per well were plated in 6-well plates with inserts containing 8 μm polycarbonate filters, and we measured their migration towards serum-containing media in the lower chamber. Ad.rGax strongly inhibited the migration of HUVECs towards serum, VEGF, bFGF, and TNF-α (Figure 5), as did Ad.hGax (data not shown). Both homologs also inhibited migration of HMEC-1 cells towards bFGF and VEGF (data not shown).

We have recently begun to examine the levels of integrin subunits in ECs and how they change in response to Gax expression. Our strategy will use real time quantitative reverse transcriptase PCR, Western blotting, and flow cytometry to measure changes in integrin expression induced by Gax expression. An initial flow cytometry experiment showed no change in the cell surface level of integrins  $\alpha_V \beta_3$  and  $\alpha_V \beta_5$  in response to Gax expression using our adenoviral vectors (data not shown). Given that this result conflicts with other data in vascular smooth muscle cells (31), we are presently attempting to repeat these experiments and determine if this result is correct. If it is correct, it would imply a cell type-specific difference in how Gax regulates integrin expression and suggest that the mechanism through which Gax inhibits angiogenesis does not involve integrin  $\alpha_V \beta_3$  or  $\alpha_V \beta_5$ .

c. Characterize Gax-induced endothelial cell apoptosis and the effect of Gax on the expression of genes regulating apoptosis. (Months 24-36.)

Status: Not done.

Results and Discussion: These experiments are scheduled to be done in Year Three.

Task 4: Determine the effects of Gax overexpression on angiogenesis in vivo. (Months 13-36.)

a. Matrigel plug assays in C57BL/6 mice to determine if Ad. Gax inhibits in vivo angiogenesis and to quantify how strong the effect is. 100 mice will be required. (Months 13-36)

Status: In progress

Results and Discussion: Matrigel containing proangiogenic factors, when implanted subcutaneously in mice, can stimulate the ingrowth of blood vessels into the Matrigel plug from the surrounding tissue, and this neovascularization can be estimated by counting CD31-positive cells and/or by measuring hemoglobin concentrations in the plug (62). Moreover, adenoviral vectors diluted in Matrigel implanted as subcutaneous plugs can serve as reservoirs to transduce ECs invading the plug and drive expression of exogenous genes (63, 64), producing effects on in vivo angiogenesis even when the gene transduced is a transcription factor (65). As originally proposed, we have taken advantage of this observation to test whether exogenously driven Gax expression can inhibit angiogenesis in vivo, using methodology previously described (63, 64). Matrigel plugs containing bFGF and either Ad.GFP, Ad.hGax, or Ad.rGax were injected subcutaneously in C57BL/6 mice (N=8 per experimental group). As a positive control for angiogenesis inhibition by a viral vector, we utilized an adenoviral construct expressing a dominant negative form of Akt (Ad.DN-Akt) (63, 64). We observed that the adenoviral vectors expressing Gax expression inhibit the neovascularization of the plugs with a potency slightly less than that observed for the Ad.DN-Akt construct (Figure 6), and that the Ad.DN.Akt construct inhibited neovascularization with a potency similar to what has previously been reported (63, 64). The results of these experiments indicate that Gax is capable of inhibiting angiogenesis in in vivo models and will form the basis of experiments proposed in Task #4.

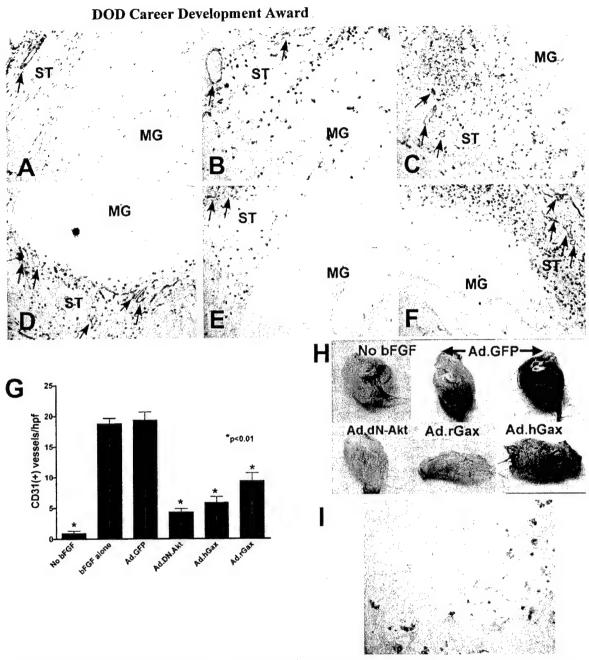


Figure 6. Effect of Gax expression on angiogenesis in Matrigel plugs. Matrigel plugs (500 ul each) containing 400 ng/ml bFGF and the indicated viral constructs at 10<sup>8</sup> pfu/plug were implanted subcutaneously in the flanks of C57BL6 mice. Plugs were harvested after 14 days incubation for immunohistochemistry on frozen sections using CD31 antibodies and determination of CD31-postitive cells per high powered (400x) field. Slides were photographed at 200x magnification. (Legend: MG = Matrigel plug; ST = stroma surrounding the plug; arrows indicate examples of CD31-positive blood vessels.) A. No growth factor. B. bFGF alone, no virus. C. Ad.GFP. Note the infiltration of the plug with CD31-positive vessels such that it is difficult to determine the exact edge of the plug in B and C. D. Ad.dN.Akt. E. Ad.hGax. F. Ad.rGax. G. Vessel counts. Results are plotted as means ± standard error of the mean, and statistical differences determined with one-way ANOVA p<0.0001 for the overall, and the vessel counts were statistically significantly different from control (Ad.GFP group) for Ad.DN.Akt (p=0.013); Ad.hGax (p=0.008); and Ad.rGax (p=0.028). H. Gross photographs of selected plugs. Note the hemorrhage into one of the Ad.GFP plugs and the lack of vessels on the capsule of the Ad.Gax and Ad.dN.Akt plugs. I. Ad.rGax drives Gax protein expression in cells invading the Matrigel plug. A representative section of Matrigel plug containing Ad.rGax was subjected to immunohistochemistry with anti-Gax antibody. Cells embedded within the Matrigel plug are staining postive for Gax protein expression (photographed at 200X magnification).

# Task 5: Identify potential downstream targets of Gax. (Months 1 through 24.)

a. Compare global gene expression between Gax-expressing endothelial cells and non-Gax-expressing endothelial cells using cDNA microarrays. (Months 10 to 18.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: We reported on the preliminary results of our cDNA microarray experiments, in which we compared the global gene expression of HUVECs transduced with Ad.rGax and Ad.hGax with that of HUVECs transduced at an equal MOI with an adenoviral vector expressing GFP (Ad.GFP) in last year's Annual Report (2003). Since then, we have concentrated primarily on two tasks: (1) analyzing the data and verifying the regulation of downstream targets by real time PCR and/or Western blot; and (2) continuing to try to develop stable transfectants with tetracycline-inducible Gax expression as a strategy by which we will be able to manipulate Gax at more physiologically relevant expression levels that what is driven by adenoviral constructs and to allow time courses of changes in EC phenotype and gene expression secondary to Gax expression.

We have now successfully generated several clones based on HMEC-1 cells with the Tet-On system (Clontech). These cells have varying levels of doxycycline-inducible gene activity when plasmids containing the Luciferase gene under control of the Tet response element (TRE). Using the Tet-On system, we have generated HMEC-1 clones with constitutive expression of rTA. When these cells are transduced with a reporter construct in which Luciferase is driven by

the Tet response element (TRE), expression of reporter gene is induced by exposure to doxycycline (Figure 7). There are several candidate clones with tetracyclineinducible expression, the most promising of which is clone #26. This clone will be transfected with pTRE-Gax, construct in which expression of the Gax cDNA is controlled by TRE to produce tetracyclineinducible Gax expression. Completion construction of these stable transfectants is presently in progress. Despite our initial success in this first step of stably expressing rTA, it is still possible that we may not be able to develop stable transfectant HMEC-1 cells with inducible Gax expression using this system

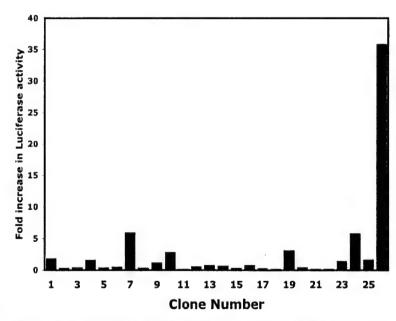


Figure 7. Tetracycline-inducible HMEC-1 constructs. HMEC-1 cells were transduced with pTet-On, which introduces the rTA element. Cells were selected with Hygromycin B, and then Hygromycin B-resistant colonies selected and expanded. Cells from individual colonies were then transduced with pTRE-Luc, a plasmid in which Luciferase expression is driven by the Tet response element, which is active in the presence of tetracycline or doxycycline and silent otherwise. Luciferase expression was determined in the presence and absence of doxycycline. Clone #26 showed the most induction with doxycyline.

will pursue two additional expression (\*Implicated in angiogenesis) strategies. First, we have obtained another EC cell line, HPMEC-ST1.6R (66), which we are presently expanding for use in generating stable transfectants with inducible Gax expression. Second, we will consider using a retroviral system (such as the BD RevTet-On vector (BD Biosciences, Palo Alto, CA) to generate either stable transfectants with inducible Gax expression or to generate long term transient inducible Gax expression whose duration should be adequate to do the experiments originally proposed.

or these cells. In this event, we Table 1. Selected NF-kB-influenced genes downregulated by Gax

Gene	Fold decrease
CXCL1 (GRO-1/Gro-α)	238.0
Interleukin-8 <sup>*</sup>	181.3
Gro-β	97.0
E-selectin*	62.6
Granulocyte chemotactic protein-2	17.5
VCAM-1	13.0
A20 (TNF-α-induced protein-3)	7.5
TNF-α receptor-associated protein-1 (TRAF-	4.0
Tissue factor	3.0
Intracellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1)	2.5
Endothelin-1	2.5
Heparin-binding EGF	2.1
Endothelial-specific molecule-1 (ESM-1)	2.1
Interferon regulatory factor-1	1.7
B94 (TNF-α-induced protein-2)	1.7
Monocyte chemotactic protein-3	1.4

# b. Data analysis of cDNA microarray data to identify putative downstream targets of Gax. (Months 19-24.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: We examined genes that were downregulated 24 hours after transduction of HUVECs with Ad.rGax and were immediately struck by the number of CXC chemokines strongly downregulated (Manuscript #3, Table 1, in the Appendix). These results were reported in last year's Annual Report, but, because the experiments had been done immediately before the report was due, we had had little time to analyze them. Most strongly downregulated of all was GRO-α (CXCL1), a CXC chemokine and a growth factor for melanoma that has also been implicated in promoting angiogenesis (67). Similarly, several other CXC chemokines were also strongly downregulated by Gax expression. Many of these peptides are clearly important in mediating EC activation during inflammation and in promoting angiogenesis (68). Consistent with the hypothesis that Gax inhibits EC activation, we also observed the downregulation of several cell adhesion molecules known to be upregulated in ECs during activation and angiogenesis, including vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), and E-selectin (69, 70). These proteins have all been implicated in leukocyte-EC interactions and are upregulated by pro-inflammatory factors and by VEGF during angiogenesis (69). The pattern of downregulation of these adhesion molecules, coupled with the downregulation of CXC chemokines, suggested to us inhibition of genes normally induced by TNF- $\alpha$ , which in turn suggested the possibility that Gax may inhibit nuclear factor κB (NF-κB) activity. Indeed, when we examined our data using GeneMAPP to look for patterns of signal-dependent gene regulation (71), we found numerous NF-kBdependent genes (72) downregulated 24 hrs after Gax expression (Table 1). These data strongly implied that Gax somehow interferes with NF-kB activity in ECs. Given that NF-kB signaling has been implicated in angiogenesis, particularly through paracrine stimulation (73) and

maintenance of EC survival pathways (74), these data also suggest a potential mechanism by which Gax inhibits angiogenesis.

Table 2: Selected genes upregulated by Gax expression

Gene For For Interval American Selected genes upregulated by Gax expression

Frizzled homolog 2

Rab coupling protein

The genes upregulated by Gax did not fall into any signal-dependent patterns as striking as the pattern of genes downregulated by Gax (Table 2). However, we did note results that might suggest specific pathways upregulated by Gax. First, there was a strong upregulation of ALK3 (bone morphogenetic receptor 1a) (75). Although it is known that, in ECs, ALK1 activates ECs through a SMAD1/5 pathway, whereas ALK5 inhibits EC activation through a SMAD2/3 pathway (76,

Gene	Fold increase
Frizzled homolog 2	30.4
Rab coupling protein	30.1
ALK3 (Bone morphogenetic protein receptor,	29.7
type Ia)	
Aquaporin 3	19.9
Frizzled	9.8
Pro-alpha I chain of type I collagen	6.4
Thrombomodulin	5.5
Id2	4.6
Integrin β <sub>4</sub> subunit	4.2
β <sub>2</sub> -arrestin	2.6
p19 <sup>INK4D</sup>	2.5
Insulin-like growth factor binding protein-1	2.5
Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1C (p57,	2.1
Kip2)	
HOXA5	2.1
Angiopoietin-2	2.0

1.5

77), it is not known what role, if any, ALK3 plays in regulating EC phenotype. However, its upregulation by Gax implies that Gax may activate TGF- $\beta$  signaling or render ECs more sensitive to TGF- $\beta$ . Second, we noted the upregulation of three CDK inhibitors, p19<sup>INK4D</sup>, p57<sup>Kip2</sup>, and p21<sup>WAF1/CIP1</sup> (28, 59, 60), suggesting redundant mechanisms by which Gax can induce  $G_1$  cell cycle arrest. Finally, we note that Frizzled-2 was upregulated. Little is known about the potential role of Frizzled receptors and Wnt signaling in regulating postnatal angiogenesis, although Frizzled-2 is known to be expressed in ECs and there is evidence suggesting Wnt signaling inhibits EC proliferation (78, 79). This data leads us to two potential other signaling pathways besides NF-kB to pursue in Years Two and Three.

<u>Task 6</u>: Exploration of downstream pathways activating putative downstream targets of Gax identified by cDNA microarray. (Months 25-36.)

a. Northern and Western blots of genes identified in Task #6 in order to verify regulation by Gax. (Months 19-36.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: We have now verified that a number of the genes identified in the cDNA microarray experiments as being downregulated by Gax are also downregulated. First, we examined several NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent genes, because that would represent independent verification that NF- $\kappa$ B signaling pathways are downregulated by Gax expression. We found that basal and TNF- $\alpha$ -induced expression of ICAM-1, VCAM-1, and E-selectin were all strongly inhibited by Gax expression (Figure 8). This is consistent with a role for Gax in inhibiting NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent gene expression. In addition, we noted that mRNAs for proangiogenic peptides such as VEGF and bFGF were also downregulated, at least at the message level (Figure 9). These observations are suggestive of a role for Gax in not only blocking NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent gene

activity but for potentially blocking angiogenesis through inhibition of the autocrine stimulation of ECs.

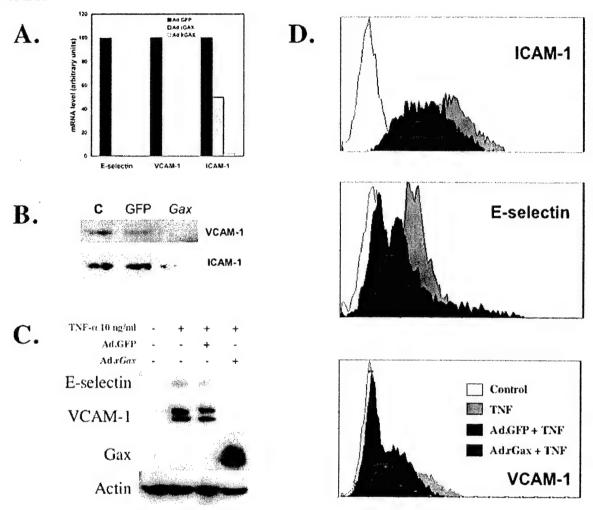
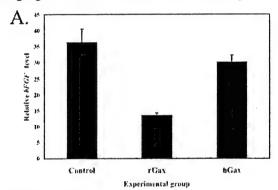


Figure 8. Effect of Gax expression on the level of E-selectin, VCAM-1, and ICAM-1. A. Quantitative real time PCR. Cells were harvested for total RNA isolation. Total RNA was then subjected to quantitative real time RT-PCR using TaqMan primers and probes specific for each gene and the results normalized to GAPDH. Units were chosen such that controls were set to 100. A very strong downregulation of E-selectin, VCAM-1, and ICAM-1 message level was observed. B. Gax downregulates VCAM-1 and ICAM-1 proteins. HUVECs were transduced with Ad.rGax or Ad.GFP and then incubated overnight. Cells were harvested for total protein and 50 μg protein was subjected to Western blot with appropriate antibodies. (C= control with no virus; GFP=Ad.GFP; Gax=Ad.rGax). E-selectin could not be visualized in unstimulated HUVECs. C. Gax blocks upregulation of VCAM-1 and E-selectin. HUVECs were transduced with Ad.rGax or Ad.GFP and then incubated overnight, after which they were stimulated with 10 ng/ml TNF-α for one hour. Cells were harvested for total protein and 50 μg protein was subjected to Western blot with appropriate antibodies. Expression of Gax from the adenoviral vector was verified by Western blot with antibodies against Gax previously described. D. Gax downregulates cell surface expression of ICAM-1, E-selectin, and ICAM-1. HUVECs transduced overnight with either Ad.GFP or Ad.rGax at an MOI=100 were stimulated with TNF-α 10 ng/ml for 4 hours and then harvested for flow cytometry using appropriate antibodies. Ad.rGax blocked the expression of VCAM-1, E-selectin, and ICAM-1.

b. Determination of the effect of *Gax* expression on sequence-specific DNA binding by NF-κB. (Months 24-36.)

Status: Not done

Results and Discussion: Given that NF-κB activity has been implicated in the changes in phenotype and gene expression ECs undergo during angiogenesis caused by VEGF, TNF- $\alpha$ , and other factors, and that a number of NF-κB targets have been implicated in inducing angiogenesis (61, 73, 80-84), we wished to confirm the finding from cDNA microarray studies that Gax inhibits NF-κB activity in ECs. We therefore performed electrophoretic mobility shift assays utilizing nuclear extracts from HUVECs transduced with either Ad.rGax or the control adenoviral vector Ad.GFP to measure binding to a probe containing an NF-κB consensus sequence (85). Specific binding to NF-κB consensus sequence by nuclear extracts from HUVECs transduced with Ad.Gax and then induced with TNF- $\alpha$  (10 ng/ml) was much reduced compared to that observed in controls (Figure 10), implying that Gax expression interferes with the binding of NF-κB to its consensus sequence. These new data imply that Gax also likely inhibits transcriptional activation by NF-κB. This suggests a method by which Gax may inhibit angiogenesis in breast cancer and an important hypothesis to test in Year Three.



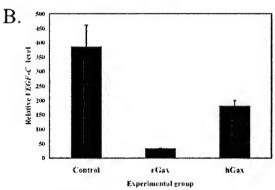


Figure 9. Gax downregulates proangiogenic factors expressed by ECs. HUVECs were transduced with either Ad.GFP (control), Ad.rGax, or Ad.hGax at MOI=100. After 24 hrs., cells were harvested for total RNA, which was then subjected to real time quantitative RT-PCR as described (Specific Aim 1). VEGF-C and bFGF message levels were normalized to GAPDH message. Units are arbitrary. A. bFGF. B. VEGF-C.

# c. Determination of the effect of *Gax* expression on transactivation by NF-κB. (Months 24-36.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: We are presently in the process of using the Luciferase reporter plasmid pIL-6-Luc (provided by Dr. Rabson), in which three copies of the IL-6 kB motif are cloned 5' to the IL-6 basal promoter element, to determine if *Gax* expression inhibits NF-κB transcriptional activation. If it does, then we will proceed as soon as possible with experiments to determine the levels of nuclear NF-κB subunits, whether *Gax* inhibits NF-κB localization to the nucleus, or whether it interacts with IκBs or IKKs. We now note that there is at least one other homeobox gene (Cdx2) that similarly inhibits NF-κB, doing so by directly binding to the p65 subunit (86). However, to the best of our knowledge, no other homeobox gene has been described that directly inhibits NF-κB activity in ECs, particularly homeobox genes implicated in regulating angiogenesis.

d. Determination of the effect of Gax expression on NF-κB expression and signaling. (Months 24-36.)

Status: In progress.

Results and Discussion: With the help of our new collaborator, Dr. Arnold Rabson (UMDNJ-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, Piscataway, NJ), we are developing the necessary assays to measure NF- $\kappa$ B expression by Western blot and to measure NF- $\kappa$ B signaling by measuring IKK activity and I $\kappa$ B activity. We will also determine the effects of Gax expression on the nuclear translocation of the NF- $\kappa$ B complex in response to stimulation by factors known to induce NF- $\kappa$ B activity in ECs, including VEGF and TNF- $\alpha$ .

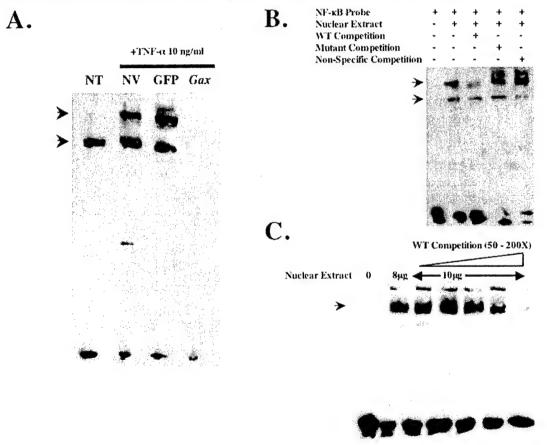


Figure 10. Gax expression inhibits NF-κB binding to its consensus sequence. A. Gax blocks NF-κB binding to its consensus sequence. HUVECs were infected with adenovirus containing GFP or rGax, incubated overnight in EGM-2, and then induced with 10 ng/ml TNF-α for 1 hour. Controls were not induced with TNF-α. Nuclear extracts were prepared with the NE-PER nuclear extraction reagent (Pierce). Nuclear extracts were incubated with biotinylated oligonucleotides, containing the consensus NF-κB binding site, and the reactions were electrophoresed on a 6% acrylamide gel, transferred to positively charged nylon membranes, and detected with the LightShift EMSA kit (Pierce). Arrows denote NF-κB specific bands, and bands at the bottom of the gels represent unbound probe. B and C. Control EMSAs. These demonstrate failure of a random sequence oligonucleotide and an NF-κB consensus sequence with a point mutation that abolishes DNA binding to compete with wild-type NF-κB sequence (B) and competition with an excess of unlabeled wild-type NF-κB oligonucleotide (C). Legend: NT=no treatment; NV=no virus

#### KEY RESEARCH ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Our key research accomplishments during the past year include:

- 1. Demonstrated that mitogens and proangiogenic factors regulate *Gax* expression in ECs in a manner similar to that observed in vascular smooth muscle cells, with its expression maximal in quiescent cells and rapidly downregulated after ECs are treated with mitogens, VEGF, or bFGF.
- 2. Demonstrated that proangiogenic factors secreted by breast cancer cells downregulate *Gax* expression in ECs.
- 3. Completed analysis of initial cDNA microarray data obtained near the end of Year One and showed that *Gax* downregulates the expression of NF-κB-dependent genes.
- 4. Confirmed cDNA microarray results for several genes identified in our initial cDNA microarray experiment at the message and protein level.
- 5. Demonstrated that Gax expression inhibits EC migration towards serum and proangiogenic stimuli.
- 6. Determined that Gax expression inhibits angiogenesis in vivo in the Matrigel plug assay.

## REPORTABLE OUTCOMES

#### **Abstracts**

1. Patel, S., and **D. H. Gorski** (2004). Inhibition of endothelial cell activation and angiogenesis by the homeobox gene *Gax* is associated with downregulation of nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB)-dependent gene expression. *Proc. Amer. Assoc. Cancer Res.*45:77. Presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Association for Cancer Research, Orlando, FL, March 28, 2004

#### Journal articles:

- 1. Gorski DH and AD Leal (2003). Inhibition of endothelial cell activation by the homeobox gene *Gax*. *J. Surg. Res.* 111: 91-99.
- 2. Gorski DH, and K Walsh (2003). Control of vascular cell differentiation by homeobox transcription factors. *Trends Cardiovasc Med* 13: 213-220.
- 3. Patel S, Leal AD, and **DH Gorski** (2004). The homeobox gene *Gax* inhibits angiogenesis through inhibition of nuclear factor-κB-dependent endothelial cell gene expression. *Mol. Cell. Biol. In review*.

#### Funding applied for based on work done on this project:

1 R01 CA111344-01 1/1/2005 - 40%
National Cancer Institute 12/31/2009 effort
Role: Principal investigator \$ 1,749,375 (total direct + indirect

costs)

Status: Under review.

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

Homeobox genes are master regulatory genes with diverse functions in many cell types. both during embryogenesis and in the adult (1, 3, 4, 6, 87). It is therefore not surprising that recently they have been implicated as important transcriptional regulators controlling endothelial cell phenotype during tumor-induced angiogenesis (7, 8, 10, 13, 15, 52). Until recently, little was known about how homeobox genes might influence endothelial cell phenotype and behavior during breast cancer-induced angiogenesis. However, evidence for their involvement in the phenotypic changes endothelial cells undergo during angiogenesis is now accumulating. For instance, Patel et al reported an endothelial cell-specific variant of HOXA9 whose expression is regulated by tumor necrosis factor-α, which is proangiogenic (88). More direct evidence for the importance of homeobox genes in angiogenesis exists for HOXD3 (7). In vivo, sustained expression of HOXD3 on the chick chorioallantoic membrane (CAM) retains endothelial cells in an invasive state and prevents vessel maturation, leading to vascular malformations and endotheliomas. In diabetic mice, HOXD3 expression is impaired in endothelial cells, as is its upregulation after wounding (52). Moreover, HOXD3 expression is elevated in breast cancer tumor vasculature as compared to normal vasculature, as measured by in situ hybridization (9). More recently, overexpression of another homeobox gene, HOXB3 has been shown to result in an increase in capillary vascular density and angiogenesis, and its blockade by antisense results in impaired capillary morphogenesis (8). In contrast, HOXD10 inhibits EC conversion to the angiogenic phenotype, and sustained expression of HOXD10 inhibits EC migration and blocks bFGF- and VEGF-induced angiogenesis in vivo (89). Consistent with this, HOXD10 expression is decreased in breast cancer vasculature (10). Another homeobox gene, Hex, has a more complex role, being upregulated in angiogenic vasculature (11, 14, 15) during embryogenesis but inhibiting angiogenesis in vitro and in vivo (12, 13). Taken together, these data suggest significant roles for specific homeobox genes in responding to extracellular signals and activating batteries of downstream genes to induce or inhibit the phenotypic changes in endothelial cells associated with angiogenesis. These observations are what initially led us to look for additional homeobox genes likely to be involved in the final transcriptional control of genes determining angiogenic phenotype in breast cancer. Because blocking aberrant angiogenesis has the potential to be an effective strategy to treat or prevent multiple diseases, understanding how downstream transcription factors integrate upstream signals from pro- and anti-angiogenic factors to alter global gene expression and produce the activated, angiogenic phenotype, will be increasingly important in developing effective antiangiogenic therapies for breast cancer.

Based on our data, we postulated that at least one additional homeobox gene, Gax, is also likely to have an important role in the phenotypic changes that occur in ECs during angiogenesis and therefore wanted to study its role in regulating breast cancer-induced angiogenesis. We originally isolated Gax from a rat aorta library (17), and subsequently we found that in the adult its expression is restricted primarily to mesodermal tissues, particularly the cardiovascular system (17, 18), as have others (20, 90). Moreover, Gax expression is rapidly downregulated by growth factors and more slowly upregulated by growth arrest signals in VSMCs both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (17, 30, 32), and its expression results in cell cycle arrest (16, 28), p21 induction (16, 28), inhibition of migration (31), and modulation of integrin expression (31). *In vivo*, Gax expression in injured vasculature prevents the proliferative response that leads to restenosis after balloon angioplasty (23, 24, 27, 28). Based on these observations, we examined Gax expression in

vascular ECs. We found that Gax is expressed in this cell type and that it has many of the same activities as in VSMCs. In addition, its expression inhibited EC tube formation on Matrigel in vivo (16). These observations led us to the present study, in which we wished to elucidate further the role(s) Gax may have in regulating angiogenesis, in particular breast cancer-induced angiogenesis. Consistent with its regulation in VSMCs, in ECs, Gax is rapidly downregulated by serum, proangiogenic, and pro-inflammatory factors (Figures 1 and 2), and is able to inhibit EC migration in vitro (Figure 5) and angiogenesis in vivo (Figure 6) These observations led us to examine the mechanism by which Gax inhibits EC activation utilizing cDNA microarrays to examine global changes in gene expression due to Gax. In addition to observing that Gax upregulates cyclin kinase inhibitors (Table 2) and downregulates a number of proangiogenic factors (Table 1), we also found that Gax inhibits the expression of a number of NF- $\kappa$ B target genes (Table 1). Consistent with the cDNA microarray data, Gax inhibits the binding of NF- $\kappa$ B to its consensus sequence (Figure 10).

The NF- $\kappa$ B/Rel proteins are an important class of transcriptional regulators that play a central role in modulating the immune response and promoting inflammation and cancer by regulating the expression of genes involved in cell growth, differentiation, and apoptosis. In many cell types, NF- $\kappa$ B promotes cell survival in response to pro-apoptotic stimuli, induces cellular proliferation, or alters cell differentiation. The NF- $\kappa$ B/Rel family is composed of at least five mammalian homologs, c-Rel, RelA (p65), RelB, p50/p105 (NF- $\kappa$ B1), and p52/p100 (NF- $\kappa$ B2), which form an array of homo- and heterodimers, known as the NF- $\kappa$ B complex (72). In most cell types, NF- $\kappa$ B exists in the cytoplasm as an inactive form bound to inhibitory proteins known as I $\kappa$ Bs. In the classical pathway of NF- $\kappa$ B activation, NF- $\kappa$ B inducers, such as TNF- $\alpha$  and other proinflammatory cytokines, growth factors, UV light, oxidative stress, and bacterial lipopolysaccharide, initiate a signaling cascade ultimately leading to the nuclear translocation of p50/RelA heterodimers, resulting from signal-induced phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B by I $\kappa$ B kinase (IKK), which targets it for ubiquitination (72, 91). In addition to this classical pathway of NF- $\kappa$ B activation, a non-canonical pathway involving activation of p52-containing dimmers through regulated processing of the p100 precursor protein (72, 91).

Several lines of evidence have implicated NF- $\kappa$ B activity in regulating EC phenotype during inflammation and angiogenesis and, in particular, the classic activation of RelA-containing heterodimers (61, 69, 73, 80-83, 92). For example, proangiogenic factors such as VEGF (69), TNF- $\alpha$  (92), and platelet-activating factor (73) can all activate NF- $\kappa$ B signaling and activity in ECs. In addition, inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activity inhibits EC tube formation *in vitro* on Matrigel (83, 93), and pharmacologic inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activity suppresses retinal neovascularization *in vivo* in mice. (94) Moreover, ligation of EC integrin  $\alpha_V \beta_3$  by osteopontin protects ECs against apoptosis induced by serum withdrawal, an effect that is due to NF- $\kappa$ B dependent expression of osteoprotogerin (81). Similarly,  $\alpha_5 \beta_1$ -mediated adhesion to fibronectin also activates NF- $\kappa$ B signaling and is important for angiogenesis, and inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B signaling may promote angiogenesis is through an autocrine effect, whereby activation of NF- $\kappa$ B induces expression of proangiogenic factors such as VEGF, as has been reported for plateletactivating factor-induced angiogenesis (73). Alternatively, the involvement of NF- $\kappa$ B in activating EC survival pathways is also likely to be important for sustaining angiogenesis (93).

Although NF-kB activity can influence the expression of homeobox genes (88, 95), there have been relatively few reports of functional interactions between homeodomain-containing proteins and NF-κB proteins. The first such interaction reported was between IκBα and HOXB7, where IκBα was found to bind through its ankyrin repeats to the HOXB7 protein and potentiate HOXB7-dependent gene expression (96). More recently, it was reported that  $I\kappa B\alpha$  can also potentiate the activity of other homeobox genes, including Pit-1 and Pax-8, through the sequestration of specific histone deacetylases (97). In contrast, Oct-1 can compete with NF-kB for binding to a specific binding site in the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter (98). In addition, at least one interaction has been described in which a homeobox gene directly inhibits NF-kB-dependent gene expression, an interaction in which Cdx2 blocks activation of the COX-2 promoter by binding p65/RelA (86). It remains to be elucidated whether Gax inhibits NF-kB-dependent gene expression by a similar mechanism or a different one. Regardless of the mechanism, however, our observations made while doing the research funded by this Idea Award, to our knowledge, represent the first description of a homeobox gene that not only inhibits phenotypic changes that occur in ECs in response to proangiogenic factors, but also inhibits NF-kB-dependent gene expression in vascular ECs. These properties suggest Gax as a potential target for the antiangiogenic therapy of breast cancer. In addition, understanding the actions of Gax on downstream target genes, signals that activate or repress Gax expression, and how Gax regulates NF-KB activity in ECs is likely to lead to a better understanding of the mechanisms of breast cancer-induced angiogenesis and the identification of new molecular targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of breast cancer.

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# **APPENDICES**

Publications during period of report:

- 1. **Gorski DH** and AD Leal (2003). Inhibition of endothelial cell activation by the homeobox gene *Gax*. *J. Surg. Res.* **111**: 91-99.
- 2. Gorski DH and K Walsh (2003). Control of vascular cell differentiation by homeobox transcription factors. *Trends Cardiovasc Med* 13: 213-220.
- 3. Patel, S, Leal, AD, and **DH Gorski** (2004). The homeobox gene *Gax* inhibits endothelial cell activation, angiogenesis, and nuclear factor kB activity. *Mol. Cell. Biol. In review*.

# Inhibition of Endothelial Cell Activation by the Homeobox Gene Gax

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Background. Angiogenesis is critical to tumor growth. Gax, a homeobox transcription factor whose expression in the adult is restricted mainly to the cardiovascular system, strongly inhibits growth factor-stimulated phenotypic modulation of vascular smooth muscle cells in vitro and in vivo. The function of Gax in vascular endothelium is unknown, but we hypothesized that it may play a similar role there. We therefore studied Gax expression in vascular endothelial cells and its effects on proliferation and tube formation.

Materials and methods. Gax expression in normal endothelial cells was examined in vitro by Northern blot and reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction and in vivo by immunohistochemistry. A replication-deficient adenovirus was then used to express Gax in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs). HUVEC proliferation, <sup>3</sup>H-thymidine uptake, p21 expression, and tube formation on reconstituted basement membrane were measured at different viral multiplicities of infection.

Results. Gax mRNA was detected in HUVECs by reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction and Northern blot analysis and in normal vascular endothelium by immunohistochemistry. Compared with controls transduced with a virus expressing  $\beta$ -galactosidase, Gax strongly inhibited HUVEC proliferation and mitogen-stimulated <sup>3</sup>H-thymidine uptake. p21 expression in HUVECs transduced with Gax was increased up to 5-fold as measured by Northern blot, and p21 promoter activity was activated by 4- to 5-fold. Tube formation on Matrigel was strongly inhibited by Gax expression.

Conclusions. Gax is expressed in vascular endothe-

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lium and strongly inhibits endothelial cell activation in response to growth factors and tube formation in vitro. These observations suggest that Gax inhibits endothelial cell transition to the angiogenic phenotype in response to proangiogenic growth factors and, as a negative regulator of angiogenesis, may represent a target for the antiangiogenic therapy of cancer. © 2003 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Key Words: angiogenesis; homeobox genes; transcription factors; vascular endothelium.

#### INTRODUCTION

Vascular remodeling plays a critical role in the biology of tumors, whose growth without a blood supply is limited to less than 1 mm in diameter by diffusion of oxygen and nutrients through the interstitial fluids [1]. To overcome this limitation, tumors secrete proangiogenic factors, such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) [2] and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) [3], to stimulate the ingrowth of new blood vessels [1, 4]. To form new tumor vasculature, endothelial cells undergo profound phenotypic changes, many of which are similar to the phenotypic changes tumor cells undergo when invading the surrounding stroma [1, 5, 6]. They degrade their basement membrane and invade the surrounding tissue, migrate towards the proangiogenic stimulus secreted by the tumor, and then form tubular structures and finally neovasculature [1, 7]. Although the receptors and signaling pathways activated by proangiogenic factors and cytokines have been extensively studied in endothelial cells [8, 9], much less is known about the molecular biology of the downstream transcription factors that regulate the tissue-specific gene expression controlling endothelial cell growth and differentiation and are activated by these signaling pathways. These transcription factors represent a common mechanism that can be influenced by the interaction of multiple signal-



ing pathways and therefore might represent targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of cancer.

To understand the transcriptional control of tumorinduced angiogenesis and thereby potentially identify
new ways to target it therapeutically, we decided to
study the role of homeobox transcription factors in
regulating the phenotypic changes that occur in endothelial cells when stimulated with proangiogenic factors. Because of their ubiquitous role as regulators of
cell proliferation, migration, and differentiation, as
well as body plan formation and organogenesis during
embryogenesis in vertebrates and invertebrates [10,
11] and as oncogenes and tumor suppressors in various
human cancers [12, 13], of all the various classes of
transcription factors, we considered homeobox genes
as especially likely to be important in regulating endothelial cell phenotype during angiogenesis.

Among homeobox genes, Gax (Growth Arrest-specific homeoboX) has several characteristics that suggest it as a candidate for a role as an inhibitor of the endothelial cell phenotypic changes that occur as a result of stimulation by proangiogenic factors. Originally isolated from vascular smooth muscle [14], in the adult Gax expression is largely restricted to the cardiovascular system [14, 15]. In vascular smooth muscle cells, Gax expression is downregulated by mitogens [14, 16] and upregulated by growth arrest signals [14, 17]. Consistent with this observation, Gax expression induces G, cell cycle arrest [18] and inhibits vascular smooth muscle cell migration, downregulating the expression of integrins,  $\alpha_V \beta_3$  and  $\alpha_V \beta_5$  [19], both of which are associated with the synthetic state in vascular smooth muscle cells and the angiogenic phenotype in endothelial cells [19, 20]. In vivo, Gax expression in arteries inhibits proliferative restenosis of the arterial lumen after injury [21]. Because Gax expression is largely confined to the cardiovascular system and mesodermderived structures [15, 22], we considered it likely that Gax is also expressed in endothelial cells because endothelial cells are also derived from mesoderm. Because of its activities in vascular smooth muscle cells. we further hypothesized that Gax may be involved in inhibiting the phenotypic changes that occur in endothelial cells in response to stimulation with proangiogenic factors. In this report, we show that Gax is also expressed in vascular endothelial cells and inhibits endothelial cell cycle activation and tube formation in response to proangiogenic factors, suggesting that it has a role as a negative regulator of angiogenesis.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Cells and Cell Culture

Human umbilical vein endothelial cells were obtained from Cambrex Biosciences (Walkersville, MD) and cultured as previously described [23] according to manufacturer's instructions in EGM-2 me-

dium (Cambrex Biosciences, Walkersville, MD). For experiments, recombinant VEGF  $_{\rm 165}$  (R & D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) was substituted in the media at the concentrations indicated for the proprietary VEGF solution.

#### Plasmid and Adenoviral Constructs

The Gax cDNA was maintained in pBluescript SK+ vectors and excised as needed for use as probes for Northern blots. Adenoviral constructs expressing the human and rat homologs of Gax (Ad.hGax and Ad. rGax, respectively) conjugated to the  $\alpha$ -hemagluttinin (HA) epitope were a kind gift of Dr. Kenneth Walsh (Boston University, Boston, MA) [18], as was the control adenoviral vector expressing B-galactosidase (Ad.β-Gal). Both human and rat isoforms of Gax were used to verify that both isoforms have similar activity. The control adenoviral vector expressing green fluorescent protein (Ad.GFP) was a kind gift of Dr. Daniel Medina (The Cancer Institute of New Jersey, New Brunswick, NJ). Viral titers were determined by plaque assay. Prior to the use of Ad.hGax or Ad.rGax in HUVECs, expression of Gax mRNA and protein in cells transduced with these adenoviral constructs were verified by Northern and Western blot (not shown). The p21 cDNA and p21 promoter constructs were also obtained from Dr. Kenneth Walsh and are the same constructs used in other studies [18]. The glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) cDNA used as a probe for Northern blots was the same construct used in another study [14].

#### Immunohistochemistry

Tissue sections were obtained from human surgical specimens and fixed and imbedded in paraffin according to standard procedures, with sections dehydrated through xylenes and then rehydrated through graded ethanols [15]. Staining with a polyclonal rabbit anti-Gax antibody, which labels rat, human, and mouse Gax protein, was performed according to previously described methods, except that the dilution used was 1:1000 [15]. A biotin-labeled goat anti-rabbit IgG (Sigma Corporation, St. Louis, MO) was used as a secondary antibody, and Gax staining was visualized using Vectastain ABC (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). Background staining was sassessed by staining sections without primary antibody. All tissue specimens were obtained from a protocol approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University that protects the privacy of the patients from which the samples were obtained.

#### Northern Blots

Northern blots measuring Gax expression were performed as previously described [14]. Briefly, total RNA (30  $\mu$ g) was isolated from cultured cells using the guanidinium thiocyanate method [24] subjected to electrophoresis through formaldehyde-containing agarose gels, capillary blotted to nylon membranes using 10× SSC as the transfer buffer, fixed to the membrane using ultraviolet crosslinking, and then hybridized to the Gax cDNA labeled with 32P by random priming in Church buffer [25]. Blots were exposed to Kodak XAR-5 X-ray film with an intensifying screen at -80° C. Blots were then stripped with 0.1× SSC plus 0.1% SDS at 95°C and reprobed with the GAPDH cDNA to verify equal RNA loading. Hybridization temperatures were 55°C for Gax, p21, and GAPDH probes, and all blots were washed to a stringency of 0.2× SSC at 65°C. For p21 Northern blots, autoradiographs were scanned and band intensities determined with NIH Image v.1.6 p21 message levels were then normalized to GAPDH levels, and the fold-induction of p21 determined.

#### Reverse Transcriptase Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR)

RNA was isolated as described above from HUVECs and used in RT-PCR to detect Gax transcripts. Total RNA (5  $\mu$ g) was subjected to

reverse transcriptase reaction with MMLV-reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) using random hexamers (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Because Gax has a single exon [26], all samples were treated with RNAse-free DNAse I (Ambion, Austin, TX) before being subjected to reverse transcription. As a further means of verifying that there was no genomic DNA contamination, control reactions with no reverse transcriptase were also subjected to PCR. To check the integrity of the RNA, the same reverse transcriptase reactions used to detect Gax were subjected to PCR using \(\beta\)-actin-specific primers. Human Gax primer sequences were: 5'-GTCAGAAGT-CAACAGCAAACCCAG-3', sense; 5'-CACATTCACCAGTTCCTTTT-CCCGAGCC-3', antisense; product size 247 bp, from nucleotides 566 to 812 (26). Human  $\beta$ -actin primer sequences were: 5'-ATCCG-CAAAGACCTGT-3', β-actin sense; and 5'-GTCCGCCTAGAAGC-AT-3'  $\beta$ -actin antisense; product size 270 bp, from nucleotides 906 to 1175 [27]. Before Gax primers were synthesized, their sequences were subjected to a BLAST [28] search against the Genbank database to detect any possibility that they might bind to or amplify genes other than Gax. Before running assays on experimental samples, each primer set, annealing conditions, Mg2+ concentration, and primer and probe concentration were optimized using plasmids containing the cDNA of interest. Reaction mixtures (25 µl) were used containing 0.75 U Taq polymerase (Gibco BRL), reaction buffer, 0.2 mm dNTPs, plus the optimized concentrations of MgCl2, probe, and primers for each primer set. The PCR cycle consisted of an initial 5-min denaturation step at 95°C, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 s, annealing at 56°C (Gax) or 54°C (β-actin) for each primer for 60 s, and extension at 72°C for 60 s.

#### Cell Proliferation and 3H-Thymidine Incorporation

The effect of Gax overexpression on mitogen-stimulated 3Hthymidine incorporation was examined in HUVECs. For cell proliferation, randomly cycling HUVECs in 6-well plates (20,000 cells/ plate) were transduced for 12 h with Ad. Gax or Ad. \beta-gal at varying MOIs, after which they were washed 3 times with phosphatebuffered saline and then placed in fresh medium EGM-2 supplemented with 10 ng/ml VEGF<sub>165</sub>). After infection, every day 3 wells for each experimental group were trypsinized and viable cells counted, with cell viability determined by Trypan blue exclusion. For 3Hthymidine uptake studies, HUVECs were made quiescent by serum starvation for 24 h in medium containing 0.1% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at which point the cells were transduced with Ad. Gax or  $\mathrm{Ad}.eta Gal$  and incubated in 0.1% FBS for an additional 24 h. The cells were then stimulated with medium containing 10% FBS and 10 ng/ml VEGF  $_{165}$  for 24 h in the presence of 0.2  $\mu$ Ci/ml  $^3$ H-thymidine (Amersham, Piscataway, NJ), after which trichloroacetic acid precipitable counts were measured.

#### Transactivation of the p21 Promoter

Subconfluent HUVECs were plated in 6-well plates and allowed to attach for 4 h. They were then infected with different MOIs of Ad.hGax, Ad.rGax, or Ad.GFP overnight, then transfected with p21 promoter Luciferase reporter construct. Transfection was performed using 2  $\mu g$  p21-Luciferase plasmid per well, plus 0.2  $\mu g$  pRL-SV (Promega, Madison, WI), which contains the cDNA for Renilla reniformis Luciferase downstream from the SV40 promoter as its reporter instead of the cDNA for firefly Luciferase, as a control for transfection efficiency. Firefly and Renilla Luciferase activities were measured using the Dual Luciferase Assay Kit (Promega, Madison, WI), and the firefly Luciferase activity from the p21-Luciferase promoter construct normalized to the constitutive Renilla Luciferase activity from the pRL-SV plasmid.

#### **Tube Formation Assay**

Tube formation assays were performed essentially as described [29]. Briefly, HUVECs were infected with adenoviruses expressing either human Gax (Ad.hGax), rat Gax (Ad.rGax), or GFP (Ad.GFP) at various multiplicity of infection (MOI). Eighteen hours later  $5\times 10^5$  cells were plated on 6 well plates whose surfaces had been coated with reconstituted basement membrane, Low Growth Factor Matrigel, (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) and incubated overnight in the presence of serum and 10 ng/ml VEGF 165. After this, the number of tubes per high-powered field were counted for 10 high-powered fields, with tubes being defined as a completed connection between cells. Ad.GFP-transduced cells were also examined using a fluorescence microscope to demonstrate that GFP was being expressed in the HUVECs forming tubes.

#### **Data Analysis and Statistics**

Experiments were repeated 3 or more times. For cell culture experiments, at least three wells per experimental group were measured and the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation determined. Statistical significance between the various groups was determined by 2-way ANOVA and the appropriate post-test, with the results being considered statistically significant when P < 0.05.

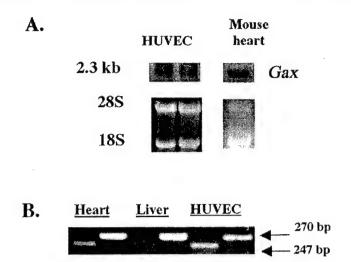
#### RESULTS

#### Gax is Expressed in Human Vascular Endothelium

Because we hypothesized that Gax is expressed in endothelial cells as well as vascular smooth muscle cells, we first examined Gax expression in cultured human vascular endothelial cells and detected Gax expression in HUVECs by Northern blot (Fig. 1A) and by RT-PCR using human Gax-specific primers (Fig. 1B). Next, to verify that Gax protein is expressed in the endothelium of normal human blood vessels, we subjected a section of human kidney from a nephrectomy specimen to immunohistochemistry with a polyclonal rabbit anti-Gax antibody [15] (Fig. 2). As expected, Gax was expressed in vascular smooth muscle cells. In addition, it was also expressed in the endothelial cells lining the lumen of arteries, as evidenced by nuclear staining of the cells of the intima. From these observations, we conclude that Gax is expressed in normal endothelial cells, both in vitro and in vivo.

#### Gax Inhibits HUVEC Proliferation in Vitro

To test the hypothesis that Gax expression inhibits proliferation of endothelial cells, we transduced HUVECs that had been sparsely plated on plastic in 6-well plates with Ad.hGax at increasing MOI. Viable cells were counted from each experimental group every 24 h for 4 days. Control cells were transduced with  $Ad.\beta$ -gal. Up to MOI = 1000,  $Ad.\beta$ -gal did not inhibit HUVEC proliferation (data not shown). Both Ad.hGax and Ad.rGax, however, inhibited HUVEC and proliferation in a dose-dependent fashion compared to  $Ad.\beta$ -gal (Fig. 3A and B; P < 0.05 for all MOI of virus). Quiescent HUVECs were then transduced with either



**FIG. 1.** Gax expression in vascular endothelial cells. Total RNA from HUVECs was subjected to Northern blot with the Gax cDNA labeled with  $^{32}P$  by random priming. (A) Northern blots. Two different HUVEC preparations were studied and compared to mouse heart (MH), which is known to express Gax. (B) RT-PCR. Total RNA from HUVECs was subjected to RT-PCR using primers that amplify a 247-bp fragment (base 566 to 812) of the human Gax cDNA. The same RT reactions were also subjected to PCR using  $\beta$ -actin primers. See Materials and Methods for details. (G = Gax;  $A = \beta$ -actin).

Ad.hGax or Ad. $\beta$ -gal, maintained in low serum medium for 24 h, then stimulated with 10% FBS and VEGF<sub>165</sub> = 10 ng/ml, and 24-h  $^3$ H-thymidine uptakes measured (Fig. 4). For comparison, one experimental

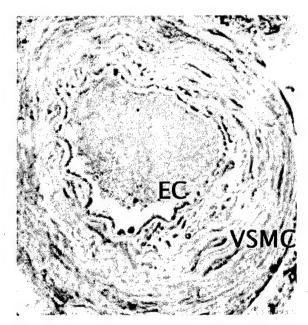


FIG. 2. Gax is expressed in both the vascular smooth muscle cells and the endothelial cells of normal human arteries. A section from human kidney obtained from a nephrectomy specimen for renal cell carcinoma was stained with rabbit polyclonal anti-Gax antibody. In the section containing normal kidney, Gax expression was noted in both the media, containing vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC), as expected from previous studies, but there was also strong staining in the endothelial cells (EC) in the intima lining the lumen.

group was left in low serum medium and is labeled "Quiescent." Consistent with its effect on randomly cycling HUVECs. Gax strongly inhibited mitogenstimulated <sup>3</sup>H-thymidine uptake (P < 0.05 for all MOI of virus). From these results, we conclude that Gax expression results in inhibition of HUVEC proliferation, as well as cell cycle arrest.

#### Gax Activates p21 Promoter Activity in Endothelial Cells

Because *Gax* induces p21 in vascular smooth muscle cells and Gax expression inhibited HUVEC proliferation as measured both by cell counts and <sup>3</sup>H-thymidine uptake, we tested whether Gax could induce p21 expression in endothelial cells. HUVECs were transduced with Ad.hGax and Ad.rGax at varying MOIs. Cells transduced with an adenovirus expressing green fluorescent protein (Ad.GFP) served as controls. By Northern blot, p21 levels were strongly induced in a viral MOI-dependent fashion (Fig. 5A). When cells transduced with Ad.hGax in a similar fashion were transfected with a plasmid containing the p21 promoter fused upstream to the firefly Luciferase gene, it was similarly observed that p21 promoter activity was increased by up to 7-fold (Fig. 5B; P < 0.05 for all MOI). Transduction with Ad. GFP did not affect p21 promoter activity (Fig. 5A and B), nor did transduction with Ad. $\beta$ -Gal (data not shown).

#### Gax Inhibits Endothelial Cell Tube Formation on Reconstituted Basement Membranes

We next studied the effect of *Gax* expression on angiogenesis *in vitro*. HUVECs were transduced with

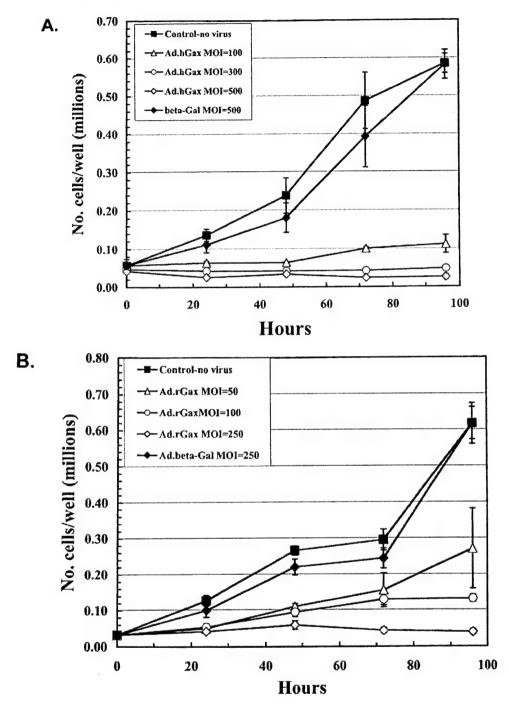


FIG. 3. Inhibition of HUVEC proliferation by Gax. Randomly cycling HUVECs growing in 6-well plates in EGM-2 medium were infected with varying MOI of either Ad.hGax, Ad.rGax, or Ad. $\beta$ -Gal. After infection, 3 wells for each experimental group were trypsinized and counted, with cell viability determined by Trypan blue exclusion, and results were counted as mean number of cells  $\pm$  standard deviation. Inhibition of proliferation was statistically significant for all experimental groups at all time points from 48 hours on (P < 0.05). (A) Effect of Ad.hGax on HUVEC proliferation.

Ad.hGax and Ad.rGax at varying MOIs and plated on reconstituted basement membrane (Matrigel) in the presence of serum and 10 ng/ml VEGF<sub>165</sub>, conditions that result in robust tube formation. Ad.GFP had no effect on tube formation up to MOI = 250, and ex-

pression of GFP was verified by fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 6). However, there was a dose-dependent decrease in tube formation beginning at relatively small doses of virus (MOI = 25) and becoming maximal at MOI = 100 (Fig. 6). Maximal inhibition oc-

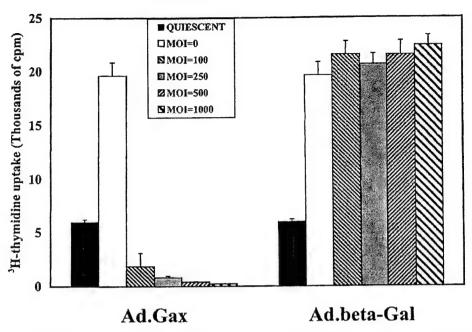


FIG. 4. Inhibition of mitogen-induced  $^3$ H-thymidine uptake in HUVECs by Gax. Quiescent HUVECs were transduced with Ad.hGax at various MOI. Twenty-four hours later, the cells were stimulated with serum and VEGF<sub>165</sub> (10 ng/ml) and 24 h.  $^3$ H-thymidine uptakes measured after stimulation. Gax strongly inhibited  $^3$ H-thymidine uptake in response to mitogen stimulation.

curred at a lower MOI than is necessary to maximally inhibit endothelial cell proliferation and activate p21 expression and became maximal at MOI = 50 to 100. We note that is the dose range of virus that we have determined to be necessary to transduce 100% of HUVECs (not shown), implying that few viral particles per cell are necessary to produce sufficient Gax protein to inhibit the cellular machinery that causes tube formation. This is in contrast to the higher viral MOI necessary to produce maximal inhibition of cell cycle progression and induction of p21 expression, implying that more viral particles per cell and therefore a higher level of Gax protein are required to mediate these effects.

#### DISCUSSION

The primary target of proangiogenic factors secreted by tumor cells, and many antiangiogenic factors, is the vascular endothelial cell [1, 30]. During angiogenesis, whether physiologic or tumor-induced, endothelial cells undergo distinct changes in phenotype and gene expression, including activation of proteolytic enzymes to degrade basement membrane, sprouting, proliferation, tube formation, and production of extracellular matrix [1, 4, 31]. Endothelial proliferation accompanies cell invasion and migration, and lumens of new capillaries are formed when endothelial cells adhere to one another and form tubes. Homeobox genes are master regulatory genes with diverse functions in many

cell types, both during embryogenesis and in the adult [10-13]. It is therefore not surprising that recently they have been implicated as important transcriptional regulators controlling endothelial cell phenotype during angiogenesis.

Until recently, little was known about how homeobox genes might influence endothelial cell phenotype and behavior during angiogenesis. However, evidence for their involvement in the phenotypic changes endothelial cells undergo during angiogenesis is now accumulating. For instance, Patel et al. reported an endothelial cell-specific variant of HOXA9 whose expression is regulated by tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$ , which is proangiogenic [32]. More direct evidence for the importance of homeobox genes in angiogenesis exists for HOXD3. Stimulation of endothelial cells with bFGF induces *HOXD3* expression, as well as integrin  $\alpha_v \beta_3$ and the urokinase plasminogen activator, effects that are blocked by HOXD3 antisense. In vivo, sustained expression of HOXD3 on the chick chorioallantoic membrane retains endothelial cells in an invasive state and prevents vessel maturation, leading to vascular malformations and endotheliomas [33]. In diabetic mice, HOXD3 expression is impaired in endothelial cells, as is its upregulation after wounding [34]. More recently, overexpression of another homeobox gene, HOXB3, in the chick chorioallantoic has been shown to result in an increase in capillary vascular density and angiogenesis, and its blockade by antisense results in impaired capillary morphogenesis [35].

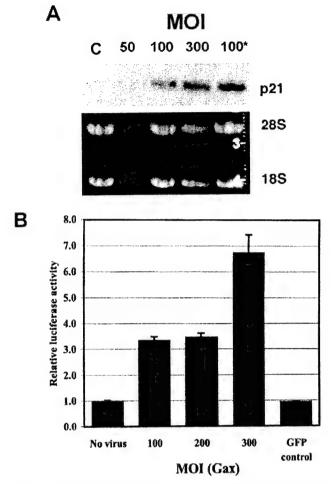


FIG. 5. Gax overexpression induces p21 expression. (A) Gax expression induces p21 expression in HUVECs. Randomly cycling HUVECs were infected with either Ad.hGax at varying MOIs, Ad.r-Gax at MOI = 100(\*), or Ad.GFP = 300 MOI (C) and then were harvested 24 h later, and Northern blots performed using a p21 probe. (B) Gax expression induces p21 promoter activity. HUVECs were infected with Ad.rGax and then transfected with a plasmid containing the p21 promoter driving the firefly Luciferase gene. Luciferase activity was measured 24 h later and normalized to Renilla Luciferase activity. Error bars represent standard deviation of 3 wells.

Taken together, these data suggest significant roles for specific homeobox genes in responding to extracellular signals and activating batteries of downstream genes to induce the phenotypic changes in endothelial cells associated with angiogenesis. These observations are what initially led us to look for additional homeobox genes likely to be involved in the final transcriptional control of genes determining angiogenic phenotype.

In this study, we have reported data strongly suggesting a role for another homeobox gene, the growth arrest homeobox gene *Gax*, in regulating the phenotypic changes that occur in vascular endothelial cells during angiogenesis. Moreover, unlike cell cycle regu-

lators such as p21 or p53, the expression of this gene is relatively restricted to the cardiovascular system [14, 15]. We suspected such a role for Gax in endothelial cells during angiogenesis because of its activities in vascular smooth muscle cells, which include G1 cell cycle arrest [18]; p21 activation [18]; and inhibition of migration towards cytokines and mitogens [19]. We therefore looked for its expression in vascular endothelial cells using RT-PCR, Northern blot, and immunohistochemistry and found that Gax is indeed expressed in endothelial cells, both in vitro (Fig. 1) and in vivo in normal human blood vessels (Fig. 2). Moreover, its expression blocks endothelial cell proliferation, with this inhibition being associated with an upregulation of p21. This upregulation is proportional to the level of expression of Gax, and appears to be caused by the activation of the p21 promoter.

Tumor angiogenesis represents a promising new target for anticancer therapy. Given that the most important cell in this process is the vascular endothelial cell, targeting angiogenesis implies targeting vascular endothelial cell processes important to angiogenesis. Specific transcription factors such as Ets-1 [36] are known to integrate the signals coming from the pathways activated by pro- and antiangiogenic factors and translate these signals to changes in endothelial cell gene expression and phenotype. As such, endothelial cell transcription factors represent both a tool for understanding the phenotypic changes endothelial cells undergo in response to proangiogenic factors secreted by tumor cells that result in angiogenesis and potential targets for the anti-angiogenic therapy of cancer. Gax is a homeobox transcription factor originally isolated in vascular smooth muscle cells that has previously been shown to be involved in cardiovascular remodeling [19, 21, 37], inhibiting vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation [18] and migration [19]. We have now shown that *Gax* is also expressed in vascular endothelial cells (Figs. 1 and 2). Moreover, Gax inhibits endothelial cell proliferation (Figs. 3 and 4) as well, activating p21 expression (Fig. 5). Of most interest, Gax also strongly inhibits tube formation on reconstituted basement membranes (Fig. 6), suggesting that, in addition to its role in inhibiting vascular smooth muscle celldependent vascular remodeling processes such as intimal hyperplasia [18, 19], it may also have a role inhibiting vascular remodeling processes that depend mainly on endothelial cells, such as angiogenesis. We therefore conclude that Gax may represent an important negative regulator of angiogenesis in vascular endothelial cells, and as such may represent a new molecular tool to understand the transcriptional control of changes in gene expression that occur in endothelial cells during angiogenesis and, more importantly, a potential target for the antiangiogenic therapy of cancer.

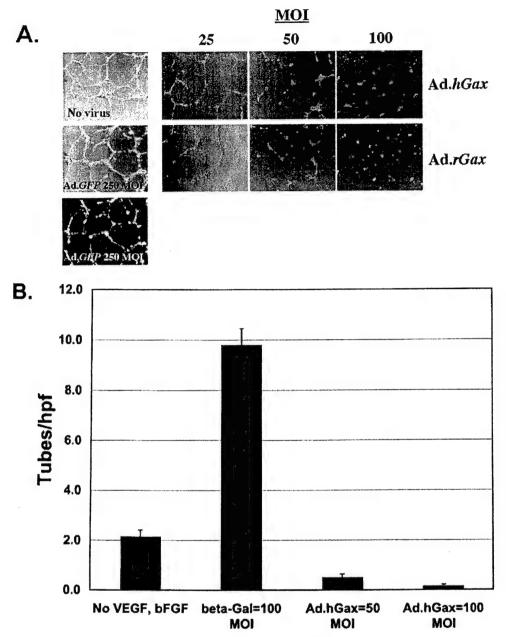


FIG. 6. Gax inhibits VEGF-induced endothelial cell tube formation on Matrigel. HUVECs were infected with adenoviruses expressing either human Gax (Ad.hGax), rat Gax (Ad.rGax), or GFP (Ad.GFP) at the MOI indicated. Eighteen hours later,  $5 \times 10^5$  cells were plated on Matrigel in 6-well plates and incubated overnight in the presence of serum and 10 ng/ml VEGF. Tube formation was strongly inhibited by both Ad.hGax and Ad.rGax (P < 0.05 at MOI = 25). (A) HUVECs in culture demonstrating the inhibition of tube formation by increasing MOI of Ad.hGax and Ad.rGax and Ad.gax and Ad.gax and Ad.gax and Ad.gax was used to inhibit endothelial cell tube formation.

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## BRIEF REVIEWS

## Control of Vascular Cell Differentiation by Homeobox Transcription Factors

David H. Gorski\* and Kenneth Walsh

Homeobox genes are a family of transcription factors with a highly conserved DNA-binding domain that regulate cell proliferation, differentiation, and migration in many cell types in diverse organisms. These properties are responsible for their critical roles in regulating pattern formation and organogenesis during embryogenesis. The cardiovascular system undergoes extensive remodeling during embryogenesis, and cardiovascular remodeling in the adult is associated with normal physiologic processes such as wound healing and the menstrual cycle, and disease states such as atherosclerosis, tumor-induced angiogenesis, and lymphedema. Aside from their roles in the formation of the embryonic vascular system, homeobox genes recently have been implicated in both physiologic and pathologic processes involving vascular remodeling in the adult, such as arterial restenosis after balloon angioplasty, physiologic and tumor-induced angiogenesis, and lymphangiogenesis. Understanding how homeobox genes regulate the phenotype of smooth muscle and endothelium in the vasculature will improve insight into the molecular mechanisms behind vascular cell differentiation and may suggest therapeutic interventions in human disease. (Trends Cardiovasc Med 2003;13:213-220) © 2003, Elsevier Inc.

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© 2003, Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved. 1050-1738/03/\$-see front matter Changes in cellular phenotype leading to remodeling in the vascular system occur during normal development and in pathologic states. During embryogenesis, vascular endothelial cell (EC) precursors converge into blood islands, which ultimately develop into the aortic arches and capillary networks that provide oxygen and nutrients to the developing organs and limbs. From this, lymphatic EC precursors bud from embryonic veins to form the lymphatic vascular system. In the adult, examples of changes in vascular cell phenotype leading to vascular remodeling include wound healing and the

menstrual cycle, during which both angiogenesis and regression of blood vessels are tightly regulated. Examples of pathologic remodeling include atherosclerosis and arterial restenosis after balloon angioplasty. In both processes, vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) migrate from the media to the intima and proliferate, leading to narrowing of the arterial lumen and the subsequent complications, including hypoxia or even anoxia in downstream tissues (Ross 1993)-quickly in the case of restenosis and slowly in the case of atherosclerosis. In addition, phenotypic changes in vascular ECs leading to vascular remodeling play a critical role in tumor biology because diffusion of oxygen and nutrients limits tumor growth to within 1 mm of a capillary. To overcome this limitation, tumors secrete proangiogenic factors to stimulate the ingrowth of new blood vessels (Folkman 1995), which develop from ECs with an immature phenotype (Eberhard et al. 2000). Similarly, tumors also secrete prolymphangiogenic factors, which allow for the ingrowth of lymphatics and subsequent metastasis to regional lymph nodes (Skobe et al. 2001). Thus, understanding the mechanisms underlying the phenotypic changes that lead to vascular remodeling could produce insights into diseases as diverse as atherosclerosis or restenosis, lymphedema, and cancer.

Although the receptors and signaling pathways activated by growth factors and cytokines have been studied extensively in the vascular system, much less is known about the molecular biology of the downstream transcription factors activated by these pathways to regulate tissue-specific gene expression controlling the growth and differentiation of these cells. Transcription factors represent a common mechanism that can integrate multiple signaling pathways to produce the necessary changes in gene expression and phenotype for vascular cells to perform their functions. Homeobox genes encode a family of transcription factors

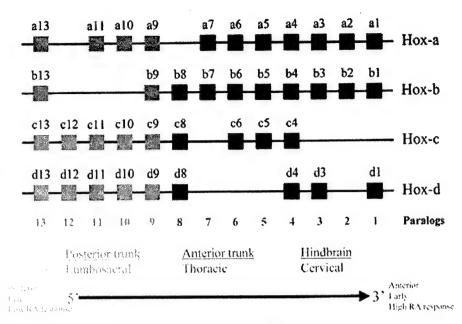
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containing a common 60-amino-acid DNA-binding motif known as the homeodomain, containing a helix-turn-helix motif similar to that found in prokaryotic regulatory proteins such as Cro, CAP, and the \(\lambda\) repressor in Escherichia coli (Scott et al. 1989). They are regulators of cell differentiation, proliferation, and migration in both vertebrates and invertebrates, controlling pattern formation in the embryo and organogenesis, as well as oncogenesis in the adult (Cillo et al. 1999. Ford 1998. Krumlauf 1994). Given these characteristics, homeobox genes are excellent candidates for important roles in the final transcriptional regulation of genes responsible for vascular remodeling and angiogenesis in normal physiology and disease. Recently several homeobox genes have been implicated in the phenotypic changes in vascular cells that lead to intimal hyperplasia, arterial restenosis after angioplasty, angiogenesis, and lymphangiogenesis. It is therefore an opportune time to review briefly what is currently known about homeobox gene expression and activity during vasculogenesis and vascular remodeling in the adult.

#### Homeobox Gene Expression and Function During Vascular Development

#### **HOX Cluster Genes**

In Drosophilia melanogaster and vertebrates, many, but not all, homeobox genes are arranged in gene clusters. In mice and humans, there are four unlinked complexes-HOX A through HOX Dthat arose from gene duplication (Krumlauf 1994). Because of this, each HOX gene may have as many as three paralogues. The location of each HOX gene in the cluster corresponds to its axial pattern of expression in the developing embryo, with 5' genes expressed more toward the caudal region and 3' genes expressed more toward the rostral region (Figure 1), with specific embryonic defects due to knockouts of specific HOX genes occurring in the axial region of their expression. HOX genes have been studied widely with regard to their ability to control pattern formation in the developing embryo. They are powerful regulators of pattern formation, as evidenced by the homeotic mutations (i.e., mutations in which one normal body part is substi-



**Figure 1.** Organization of the HOX clusters. The four HOX clusters in the human and mouse are believed to have evolved through gene duplication. In the human, there are 39 homeobox genes in the HOX clusters (Kosaki et al. 2002). In the mouse, as shown in this figure, the 3' genes are expressed early in embryogenesis in the more rostral regions of the embryo, whereas the 5' genes are expressed later in embryogenesis in the caudal regions of the embryo (Cillo et al. 1999). The 3' rostral genes are highly responsive to retinoic acid (RA), whereas the 5' caudal genes are less sensitive. Each homeobox gene can have as many as three paralogs in the same position in other HOX clusters. Each HOX cluster is located on a different chromosome. The arrangement of the human HOX clusters, HOX A through D, is nearly identical to the mouse. See text for details.

tuted for another normal body part, as in Antennapedia).

Several members of the HOX clusters are expressed in the cardiovascular system during embryogenesis, including HOXA5, HOXA11, HOXB1, HOXB7, and HOXC9 (Miano et al. 1996). Moreover, there is functional evidence for involvement of HOX genes in vasculogenesis. For example, transgenic mice with null mutations of the HOXA3 gene die shortly after birth, suffering from defects in the cardiovascular system that include heart-wall malformations, persistent patent ductus arteriosus, and aortic stenosis (Chisaka and Capecchi 1991). In some of these mice, the right carotid artery fails to form, and in all mice the aorta is thin walled and poorly developed. The overall constellation of defects in HOXA3 null mice is similar to that observed in the human congenital disorder DiGeorge syndrome (Chisaka and Capecchi 1991).

Because paralogous HOX genes have similar DNA-binding domains and axial expression patterns during embryogenesis, it has been hypothesized that they may have overlapping or complementary functions. Thus, targeting one paralogue may not produce an observable phenotype. This has been demonstrated by antisense targeting of the messages for the paralogous HOX 3 group (HOXA3 and HOXB3), which results in the regression of aortic arch 3 in a manner similar to that of arch 2 (Kirby et al. 1997). Similarly, targeting paralogous group 5 genes (HOXA5, HOXB5, and HOXC5) causes the appearance of an additional pharyngeal arch containing a novel and aortic arch artery (Kirby et al. 1997). These observations suggest that paralogues probably have overlapping functions in vascular development and that in at least some cases they can compensate for each other when the function of one is impaired.

#### Paired-Related Genes

The expression of two genes not located in the HOX clusters—*Prx1* (formerly known as *MHox* or *Phox*) (Cserjesi et al. 1992) and *Prx2* (formerly known as *S8*) (Opstelten et al. 1991)—during embryogenesis suggests that they have an important role in vasculogenesis. In the vascular

system, expression of Prx1 and Prx2 is associated with the primary vessel wall and becomes increasingly restricted to the adventitial and outer medial cell layers as development proceeds (Bergwerff et al. 1998). Prx1 expression colocalizes with procollagen I and fibrillin 2 but not with smooth muscle α actin, whereas Prx2 expression is highly associated with the developing ductus arteriosus and is one of the earliest markers of its differentiation. Transgenic mice with null mutations Prx1 and Prx2 suggest their relative importance in vascular patterning in the embryo. Prx2-/- mutants do not show cardiovascular malformations. In contrast, Prx1<sup>-/-</sup> mutants display abnormal positioning and awkward curvature of the aortic arch, in addition to a misdirected and elongated ductus arteriosus (Bergwerff et al. 2000). However,  $Prx1^{-/-}/Prx2^{-/-}$ double mutants demonstrate a more severe form of these abnormalities, some of them possessing an anomalous retroesophageal right subclavian artery, as well as excessive tortuosity of all great vessels as they run through the mesenchyme, although they do not have cardiac anomalies (Chesterman et al. 2001). Thus, the loss of Prx2 function exacerbates anomalies due to the loss of Prx1. suggesting functional overlap between these two genes in vascular development.

Hex: An Early Marker of EC Precursors and Regulator of EC and VSMC Differentiation

Hex is a proline-rich divergent homeobox gene originally isolated from hematopoietic tissues (Crompton et al. 1992). Expressed in a range of hematopoietic progenitor cells and cell lines (Crompton et al. 1992), Hex is an early marker of EC precursors and is transiently expressed in the nascent blood islands of the visceral yolk sac and later in embryonic angioblasts and endocardium (Thomas et al. 1998). The Xexnopus laevis homologue XHex is expressed in vascular ECs throughout the developing vascular network, and its overexpression leads to disruption of vascular structures and an overall increase in EC number (Newman et al. 1997). These observations suggest an important role for Hex in the vascular patterning due to the migration and proliferation of EC precursors. In addition, it has been reported recently that Hex also is expressed in VSMCs (Sekiguchi et al. 2001). Its expression is upregulated in neointimal VSMCs after balloon injury in the rat, and *Hex* activates the promoter of NMHC-B/SMemb, a nonmuscle-specific isoform of the smooth muscle myosin heavy chain that is expressed during embryonic development of the aorta, declines in the neonate and adult, and is re-induced in vascular lesions.

Given the above experimental observations, it has been assumed that Hex promotes the conversion of ECs to the angiogenic phenotype. However, recent evidence does not support that assumption and suggests that the role of Hex in controlling vascular phenotype may be more complex than first thought. First, disruption of the Hex gene in mouse embryos does not produce a detectable change in the vascular phenotype (Barbera et al. 2000), suggesting that other factors—perhaps the transcription factor Scl (Liao et al. 2000)-may compensate for the loss of Hex function. Also, it has been reported recently that Hex overexpression in human umbilical vein ECs (HUVECs) inhibits in vitro surrogates for angiogenesis, including migration toward vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), invasion, proliferation, and tube formation on reconstituted basement membrane (Matrigel) (Nakagawa et al. 2003). In addition, Hex was shown to inhibit the expression of angiogenesisrelated membrane genes, including those encoding VEGFR-1, VEGFR-2, neuropilin 1, integrin subunit  $\alpha_V$ , Tie-1, and Tie-2. It remains to be clarified whether Hex inhibits angiogenesis in vivo, but, taken together with previous reports, these observations suggest a complex role for Hex in regulating the proliferation and development of the vascular tree and the differentiation of ECs and VSMCs.

Prox1 and Development of the Lymphatic System

The lymphatic system is a vascular network of thin-walled capillaries and larger vessels lined by a layer of ECs that drain lymph from the tissue spaces of most organs and return it to the venous system for recirculation. Early in development, primitive lymph sacs develop from endothelial budding from the veins to form the lymphatic system. The homeobox gene Prox1 has been implicated in the development of the lymphatic system. Originally isolated by its homology to the Proso

phila gene prospero (Oliver et al. 1993), Prox1 has an expression pattern that suggests a functional role in a variety of tissues, including eye lens, central nervous system, and liver, with null mutations leading to embryonic lethality (Wigle and Oliver 1999). Supporting a role in lymphatic development is the observation that Prox1 is the earliest marker of lymphatic EC precursors, and in Prox1-/knockout mice, budding of ECs that give rise to the lymphatic system is arrested at embryonic day 11.5, resulting in mice without lymphatic vasculature (Wigle and Oliver 1999). In contrast, vasculogenesis and angiogenesis are unaffected by the loss of Prox1 function (Wigle and Oliver 1999, Wigle et al. 2002). In addition, expression of *Prox1* in vascular ECs results in proliferation and a reprogramming of these cells to a lymphatic EC phenotype, inducing expression of lymphatic genes such as VEGFR-3, p57kip2, and desmoplakin I/II and downregulating vascular EC genes such as STAT6 and neuropilin 1 (Hong et al. 2002, Petrova et al. 2002). Moreover, this lymphatic reprogramming due to Prox1 expression occurs only in vascular ECs, although Prox1 is still able to induce cyclin expression and proliferation in other cell types (Petrova et al. 2002). Together, these data suggest a role for Prox1 as a general inducer of proliferation and a key regulatory gene in the developing lymphatic system.

#### Homeobox Gene Expression and Function in Mature Blood Vessels

Homeobox Gene Expression during VSMC Phenotypic Modulation and Vascular Disease

VSMCs exist within a spectrum of phenotypes ranging from the "contractile" to the "synthetic" state (Ross 1993). Cells in the contractile state are quiescent; do not migrate; are relatively insensitive to mitogens; express contractile proteins, including smooth muscle-specific isoforms of actin and myosin; and are associated with normal vessel wall. Synthetic state cells, on the other hand, are able to migrate; express lower levels of contractile proteins, with higher levels of nonmuscle isoforms of myosin and actin; secrete extracellular matrix components; and generally resemble less-differentiated VSMCs found in fetal blood vessels. Over the last decade, evidence has been accumulating that homeobox genes are involved in regulating the transition between these two phenotypes.

In the adult, several members of the HOX clusters are expressed in the cardiovascular system. Homeobox sequences isolated from adult rat aorta include HOXA2, HOXA4, HOXA5, and HOXB7, and HOXA11 (Gorski et al. 1994, Patel et al. 1992). Other groups have reported the expression of HOXA5, HOXA11, HOXB1, HOXB7, and HOXC9 in human adult and fetal aortic smooth muscle (Miano et al. 1996, Patel et al. 1992). Of these, HOXB7 and HOXC9 are expressed at markedly higher levels in embryonic VSMCs compared with adult VCMCs, suggesting a role in the proliferation and remodeling that occur during embryogenesis (Miano et al. 1996). In addition, overexpression of HOXB7 in C3H10T1/2 cells results in increased proliferation; the induction of a VSMC-like morphology: and the expression of early, but not intermediate, VSMC markers. Moreover, HOXB7 mRNA was detected in human atherosclerotic plaques at a higher level than in normal human arterial media (Bostrom et al. 2000). These observations suggest a role for HOXB7 and perhaps HOXC9 in vascular remodeling, either in the expansion of immature VSMCs or the change of vascular myocytes to a more immature phenotype, both of which occur in human vascular diseases, such as atherosclerosis and restenosis after balloon angioplasty.

#### Gax and Control of Smooth Muscle Phenotype

Originally isolated from a rat aorta cDNA library with the use of degenerate oligonuceotide probes directed at the most conserved protein sequence of the Antennapedia homeodomain (Gorski et al. 1993a), Gax (also known as Mox-2) encodes a homeodomain-containing transcription factor whose expression has multiple effects on vascular phenotype. Although its expression is more widespread in the embryo, including all three muscle lineages and brain (Skopicki et al. 1997), Gax expression in the adult is more narrowly confined to cardiovascular tissues, including heart, medial smooth muscle cells of arteries, lung, and mesangial cells in the kidney (Gorski et al. 1993a). In VSMCs, Gax expression is downregulated rapidly by mitogenic sig-

nals such as serum, platelet-derived growth factor (Gorski et al. 1993a), and angiotensin II (Yamashita et al. 1997), and more slowly upregulated by growth arrest signals such as serum deprivation (Gorski et al. 1993a) and C-type natriuretic peptide (Yamashita et al. 1997). Moreover, Gax expression is also downregulated in the proliferating VSMCs of the rat carotid artery after balloon injury (Weir et al. 1995). Gax expression induces G<sub>0</sub>/G<sub>1</sub> cell-cycle arrest and upregulates p21 expression by a p53-independent mechanism, and it is this upregulation of p21 that accounts for its antiproliferative activity (Smith et al. 1997). Gax also controls the migration of VSMCs toward chemotactic growth factors through its ability to alter integrin expression, downregulating integrins  $\alpha_V \beta_3$  and  $\alpha_V \beta_5$  through the specific suppression of the  $\beta_3$  and  $\beta_5$ subunits, both in vitro and in vivo (Witzenbichler et al. 1999). Cell-cycle arrest. which does not by itself suppress VSMC migration, is essential for the antimigratory activity of Gax, as Gax overexpression has no effect on p21<sup>-/-</sup> cells. Collectively, these data suggest that Gax may function to coordinate vascular cell growth and motility through its ability to regulate integrin expression in a cellcycle-dependent manner. The ability of Gax to induce apoptosis in proliferating VSMCs (Perlman et al. 1998) is consistent with these observations, because integrin signaling is an important regulator of cell viability.

# Control of Smooth Muscle Phenotype by Prx

The expression of *Prx1* and *Prx2* cannot be detected in the vasculature of adult rats, but they are upregulated in rat pulmonary arteries in which pulmonary hypertension was induced by the injection of monocrotaline (Jones et al. 2001). Induction of Prx1 and Prx2 expression in vitro and in vivo is coincident with induction of the extracellular matrix protein tenascin C, which promotes growth and survival of cultured VSMCs. Prx1 activates the tenascin-C promoter and induces VSMC proliferation in vitro. Consistent with these observations, Prx1 is upregulated by angiostatin II and, along with the serum response factor, mediates angiotensin II-induced smooth muscle α-actin expression in VSMCs (Hautmann et al. 1997). Collectively, it appears

that *Prx1* and *Prx2* genes have roles both in regulating the proliferation of embryonic VSMCs during the formation of the vascular system and in controlling the change of mature VSMCs to a more immature phenotype that occurs in some vascular diseases.

# Homeobox Genes and Postnatal Angiogenesis

Functional evidence for the involvement of HOX cluster genes in the regulation of the angiogenic phenotype comes from the study of the paralogous HOX genes HOXD3 and HOXB3, each of which appears to have distinct and complementary roles in this process. HOXD3 is expressed at high levels in proliferating ECs induced to form tubes on Matrigel but not in quiescent ECs, and its expression is induced by basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) (Boudreau et al. 1997). Functionally, blocking HOXD3 expression with antisense inhibits the bFGFstimulated upregulation of integrin  $\alpha_V \beta_3$ and urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA) without affecting EC proliferation. In contrast, overexpressing HOXD3 leads to expression of these genes and a morphologic change to the angiogenic phenotype, resulting in the formation of endotheliomas in vivo. In diabetic mice, HOXD3 expression is impaired in ECs, as is its upregulation after wounding, suggesting that impaired HOXD3 expression might be involved in the impaired wound healing observed in diabetics (Uyeno et al. 2001). In addition, the HOXD3 paralogue, HOXB3, has been reported to influence angiogenic behavior in a manner distinct from HOXD3. Antisense against HOXB3 impairs the capillary morphogenesis of dermal microvascular ECs and decreases the phosphorylation of the Eph A2 receptor (Myers et al. 2000). Consistent with this result, constitutive expression of HOXB3 results in an increase in capillary vascular density and angiogenesis, but does not produce endotheliomas. Taken together, these results suggest overlapping and complementary roles for HOXB3 and HOXD3 in angiogenesis, with HOXD3 promoting the invasive or migratory behavior of ECs in response to angiogenic signals and HOXB3 promoting capillary morphogenesis of these new vascular sprouts.

In contrast to HOXB3 and HOXD3, another HOX cluster gene—HOXD10—

inhibits EC conversion to the angiogenic phenotype. Expression of HOXD10 is higher in quiescent endothelium as compared with tumor-associated vascular endothelium. Moreover, sustained expression of HOXD10 inhibits EC migration and blocks bFGF- and VEGF-induced angiogenesis in the chick chorioallantoic membrane assay in vivo. Consistent with these observations, human ECs overexpressing HOXD10 fail to form new blood vessels (Myers et al. 2002) when embedded in Matrigel-containing sponges (Nor et al. 2001) in nude mice. In addition, human ECs overexpressing HOXD10 express a gene profile consistent with a quiescent, nonangiogenic state, with decreased expression of genes that influence remodeling of the extracellular matrix and cell migration during angiogenesis, such as the uPA receptor and the α<sub>3</sub> and  $\beta_4$  integrin subunits (Myers et al. 2002). Based on these observations, coupled with the proangiogenic activity of HOXB3 and HOXD3, it has been proposed that the 5' and 3' HOX genes have distinct influences on EC behavior, with the more 3' genes tending to promote the angiogenic phenotype and the more 5' HOX genes such as HOXD10 tending to be inhibitory to the angiogenic phenotype and dominant.

The expression of other members of the HOX clusters also have been detected in vascular ECs. One example is HOXA9EC, an alternatively spliced variant of HOXA9 whose expression is downregulated by tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ), which, in addition to its numerous other activities, is proangiogenic (Patel et al. 1999). Also, the expression of several members of the HOX B cluster in HUVECs is regulated by VEGF and tissue plasminogen activator, but not bFGF (Belotti et al. 1998). Because HOX B cluster gene expression does not correlate with the mitogenic state of the cell but rather is altered with the state of cellular differentiation, it has been suggested that these genes are involved in the morphogenic changes associated with the angiogenic phenotype.

Recently it has been reported that *Gax* also is expressed in vascular ECs (Gorski and Leal 2003). As in VSMCs, in ECs, *Gax* expression results in cell-cycle arrest and induces p21 expression and promoter activity. Of note, it also strongly inhibits EC tube formation in response to VEGF on Matrigel (Gorski and Leal

2003) in a manner similar to that of Hex (Nakagawa et al. 2003). These additional observations suggest that in addition to its likely role in maintaining VSMCs in the contractile phenotype, Gax may also have a role in EC differentiation. Taken together, all of the above observations suggest that Gax may be a global inhibitor of vascular cell activation. However, like Hex knockout mice (Barbera et al. 2000), mice transgenic for a null mutation in Gax have not been reported to show vascular anomalies (Mankoo et al. 1999). Rather, they show skeletal muscle anomalies in the limbs and die shortly after birth from unknown causes. This would tend to suggest that other homeobox factors, such as Mox-1 (Candia and Wright 1996) or possibly Pax3 (Stamataki et al. 2001), might compensate for a lack of Gax/Mox-2 expression in the developing cardiovascular system. It would be of great interest to determine whether Gax knockout mice demonstrate increased angiogenesis in response to proangiogenic stimuli, but such studies would be difficult because of their very brief life span. Similar studies would also be of interest in Hex knockout mice.

Other homeobox genes also are likely to be involved in regulating angiogenesis, whether physiologic or tumor induced. For example, St. Croix et al. (2000) used serial analysis of gene expression to look for expressed sequence tags (ESTs) whose expression is at least 10-fold greater in tumor endothelium compared with normal endothelium. Not surprisingly, many of the ESTs they reported derive from extracellular matrix proteins. However, one EST was similar to the homeobox gene Dlx-3, a member of the Distal-less family of homeobox genes. This EST was not detectable in the developing corpus luteum, implying a distinction between tumor angiogenesis and physiologic angiogenesis. Interestingly, Dlx-3 has been implicated in placental function (Beanan and Sargent 2000). Other placental homeobox genes include Dlx-4, Gax/Mox-2, HB24, and Msx2 (Quinn et al. 1997). Given the critical importance of angiogenesis and blood vessel regression in placental function, it is reasonable to predict that some of these genes are involved in vascular remodeling in the placenta. It is also reasonable to postulate that homeobox genes previously demonstrated to be important in inducing proliferation and migration of ECs and EC precursors during angiogenesis—such as *Hex*—also may be important in inducing angiogenesis in the adult vasculature.

#### Conclusions

Although much more is known since the last time we reviewed the expression and function of homeobox genes in the vasculature (Gorski et al. 1993b), knowledge of the transcriptional regulation of VSMC and EC phenotype still is not as detailed as is the understanding of the cytokines and growth factors that act on ECs and VSMCs to regulate their phenotype, the receptors these factors activate, and the downstream signaling pathways activated in turn by these receptors. However, a growing number of homeobox genes have been implicated in vascular development in the embryo and vascular remodeling, angiogenesis, and vascular diseases in the adult. Moreover, with the description of Prox1 (Hong et al. 2002, Petrova et al. 2002), it has become clear that homeobox genes participate in the development of the lymphatic vascular system as well. Given the sheer number of homeobox genes and potential interactions between them and vascular remodeling, it is difficult to generalize too much about the roles of homeobox genes in these processes, some of which are listed in Table 1. It is possible, however, to come to three general conclusions with regard to how homeobox genes regulate vascular remodeling.

1. Pathways controlled by homeobox genes are redundant, especially during embryogenesis. This implies that it is more likely to be the overall pattern of homeobox gene expression rather than any one individual homeobox gene that regulates the phenotype of VSMCs and ECs during angiogenesis and vascular remodeling. The roles of *HOXB3*, *HOXD3*, and HOXD10 in regulating EC phenotype during angiogenesis represent a good example of this principle. It may be the balance between pro- and antiangiogenic HOX cluster genes that determine whether an EC becomes angiogenic, and different proangiogenic HOX genes may control different stages or aspects of angiogenesis (e.g., HOXB3 and HOXD3). It also can be postulated that Gax and Hex help to determine this balance. Similarly, in VSMCs, it can be postulated that the balance between Gax and Prx1/Prx2 (and possibly Hex) plays a major role in

Table 1. Homeobox genes expressed in the cardiovascular system

Cell type	Gene	Function/observation	Reference
VSMC	Gax (Mox-2)	Downregulated upon mitogen stimulation and vascular injury Causes $G_1$ cell-cycle arrest and inhibits VSMC migration Inhibits integrin $\alpha_V\beta_3$ and $\alpha_V\beta_5$ expression Induces apoptosis in cycling cells Inhibits restenosis after balloon injury Interacts with $Pax3$	Perlman et al. 1998,
	Нех	Induces expression of immature actin isoform in VSMCs	Sekiguchi et al. 2001
	HOX B7	More highly expressed in fetal VSMCs than in adult VSMCs Induces differentiation of C3H10T1/2 cells into VSMC-like cells	Bostrom et al. 2000, Miano et al. 1996
	HOX C9	More highly expressed in fetal VSMCs than in adult VSMCs	Miano et al. 1996
	HOX A3 and B3	HOX A3 knockout mice have vascular anomalies Blocking HOX A3 and B3 causes regression of aortic arch 3	Kirby et al. 1997
	HOX A5, B5, and C5	Blocking expression causes appearance of additional aortic arch artery	Kirby et al. 1997
	HOX A2, A4, A11, and B1	Isolated from vascular smooth muscle, functions in VSMC unknown	Gorski et al. 1993a and 1994, Patel et al. 1992
	Prx1	Interacts with serum response factor to activate binding Putative role in angiotensin II-mediated smooth-muscle α-actin expression  Prx1/Prx2 double-null mutants demonstrate vascular anomalies  Activates proliferation and tenascin-C expression	Bergwerff et al. 1998 and 200 Chesterman et al. 2001, Hautmann et al. 1997, Jones et al. 2001
	Prx2	Widely expressed in embryonic vasculature Prx1/Prx2 double-null mutants demonstrate vascular anomalies	Bergwerff et al. 1998 and 200 ten Berge et al. 1998
Vascular ECs	HOXA9EC	EC specific, function presently unknown Expression modulated by tumor necrosis factor α	Patel et al. 1999
	<b>HOX B</b> cluster	HOX B cluster induced by differentiating factors	Belotti et al. 1998
	HOXB3	Involved in regulating capillary morphogenesis	Myers et al. 2000
	HOXD3	Induces expression of integrin $\alpha_V \beta_3$ Induces angiogenic phenotype in ECs Impaired function associated with impaired wound healing	Boudreau et al. 1997, Uyeno et al. 2001
	HOXD10	Inhibits angiogenesis and changes EC gene expression profile to the nonangiogenic state	Myers et al. 2002
	Dlx-3	Expressed sequence tags with homology to <i>Dlx-3</i> expressed at high levels in tumor endothelium Necessary for placental development	Quinn et al. 1997, St. Croix et al. 2000
	Gax (Mox-2)	Inhibits in vitro surrogates for angiogenesis May have function in placental-mesenchymal interactions	Gorski and Leal 2003, Quinn et al. 1997 and 2000
	Hex	Early marker of ECs during embryogenesis Expressed throughout the vascular network Overexpression increases EC number in embryos Overexpression blocks EC tube formation on Matrigel	Barbera et al. 2000, Liao et al. 2000, Nakagawa et al. 2003, Newman et al. 1997, Sekiguchi et al. 2001, Thomas et al. 1998
Lymphatic ECs	Prox1	Specific to lymphatic ECs Induces expression of lymphatic EC-specific genes Null mutations prevent development of lymphatic system Master regulator of lymphatic vessel formation from embryonic venous system	Hong et al. 2002, Petrova et al. 2002, Wigle and Oliver 1999, Wigle et al. 1999 and 2002

determining whether VSMCs become contractile or synthetic.

2. Individual homeobox genes may function as master regulatory genes for parts of the vascular system. For instance, although a master regulatory gene controlling development of angioblasts into vascular ECs or VSMCs remains to be identified, Prox1 represents a very good candidate for such a role in lymphatic endothelium. However, it must be remembered that most homeobox genes controlling vascular phenotype also are expressed in other tissues. Even Prox1 is expressed in liver and eye lens during embryogenesis. Similarly, Prx1 is clearly important in skeletal development (ten Berge et al. 1998), and Gax is important in skeletal muscle development (Mankoo et al. 1999). This implies that cell-type-specific factors influence the activities of homeobox genes in both ECs and VSMCs and that homeobox genes may be downstream from other, more global, master regulatory genes. Indeed, Prox1 can only reprogram a vascular EC to take on the phenotype of lymphatic endothelium (Petrova et al. 2002). It cannot so reprogram other cell types.

3. Little is known about how homeobox genes implicated in angiogenesis and vascular remodeling exert their effects at the molecular level. However, it is clear that at least a subset of them appear to function by controlling the differentiation, proliferation, and/or migration of VSMCs and ECs. The mechanism behind these phenotypic changes must be the activation and repression of specific batteries of downstream genes. Because few downstream genes from homeobox genes are known, one of the most fertile areas of research for homeobox gene research is the identification of their downstream targets and the elucidation of the mechanisms by which homeobox genes regulate the expression of these target genes and these target genes in turn lead to the phenotypic changes observed. In the near future, it is likely that cDNA microarray technology will provide an excellent tool for identifying the global changes in gene expression occurring in response to homeobox gene expression in vascular cells.

Given their importance in cell-cycle control, cell migration, and cell adhesion, it is likely that many more homeobox genes will be implicated in the regulation of vascular remodeling and angiogenesis. The identification of the specific

homeobox genes involved in these processes, their downstream target genes, and the cell-signaling pathways activated and repressed by homeobox gene expression in vascular ECs and VSMCs will result in a better understanding of the basic cellular mechanisms by which the vascular system is remodeled in response to physiologic signals, tumors, or other stimuli. Such understanding has the potential to lead to the development of therapies that block tumor angiogenesis and lymphatic metastasis, reverse atherosclerosis, prevent restenosis after angioplasty, improve wound healing, and reverse lymphedema.

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### MANUSCRIPT SUBMITTED BUT NOT YET ACCEPTED

# The homeobox gene *Gax* inhibits angiogenesis through inhibition of nuclear factor-kB-dependent endothelial cell gene expression

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The growth and metastasis of tumors are heavily dependent on angiogenesis, but much of the transcriptional regulation of vascular endothelial cell (EC) gene expression responsible for angiogenesis remains to be elucidated. The homeobox gene Gax is expressed in vascular ECs and inhibits proliferation and tube formation in vitro. We hypothesized that Gax is a negative transcriptional regulator of the EC angiogenic phenotype and studied its regulation and activity in vascular ECs. Several pro-angiogenic factors caused a rapid downregulation of Gax mRNA in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs), as did conditioned media from breast cancer cell lines. In addition, Gax expression using an replication-deficient adenoviral vector inhibited HUVEC migration towards proangiogenic factors in vitro and inhibited angiogenesis in vivo in Matrigel plugs. To identify potential downstream targets of Gax, we examined changes in global gene expression due to Gax activity using cDNA microarrays. Gax expression resulted in changes in HUVEC gene expression profiles consistent with a quiescent, non-angiogenic phenotype, with increased expression of cyclin kinase inhibitors and decreased expression of numerous genes implicated in EC activation and angiogenesis. Further analysis revealed that Gax downregulated numerous nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB) targets genes, and we observed that Gax decreases the binding of NF-κB to its target sequence in electrophoretic mobility shift assays. To our knowledge, Gax is the first homeobox gene described that influences NF-kB activity in vascular ECs. Because NF-kB has been implicated in EC activation and angiogenesis, the downregulation of NF-κB-dependent genes by Gax suggests one potential mechanism by which Gax inhibits the angiogenic phenotype.

#### INTRODUCTION

The process of angiogenesis, critical in both normal physiology and in disease states such as cancer and inflammatory diseases, is normally tightly regulated by a balance between pro- and antiangiogenic factors, known as the "angiogenic balance" (32). Tumors hijack the process of angiogenesis in order to parasitize their host by secreting proangiogenic peptides, cytokines, and chemokines, tipping the "angiogenic balance" towards a proangiogenic state. The primary target of proangiogenic factors secreted by tumors is the vascular endothelial cell (EC). During angiogenesis, whether physiologic or tumor-induced, vascular ECs become "activated" and undergo distinct changes in phenotype and gene expression. These changes include activation of proteolytic enzymes to degrade basement membrane, EC sprouting, proliferation, tube formation, and production of extracellular matrix (3, 45, 60). Although the EC receptors and signaling pathways activated by proangiogenic factors, such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) (15, 16) or basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) (15), and proangiogenic and proinflammatory factors such as tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ) (64) have been extensively studied, less is known about the molecular biology of the downstream transcription factors activated by these factors, which in turn activate and repress batteries of downstream genes necessary for the phenotypic changes that ECs must undergo in order for angiogenesis to occur. Nuclear transcription factors likely integrate these signals in order to produce the gene expression profile that results in the phenotypic changes resulting in angiogenesis. Thus, understanding the transcriptional mechanisms by which ECs become activated is likely to suggest new therapeutic strategies for inhibiting this process at a very distal point in its signaling cascade, with potential applications in the treatment of cancer and vascular diseases whose pathophysiology is significantly based on EC activation, such as atherosclerosis.

Because of their ubiquitous role as regulators of cellular differentiation and body plan formation during embryogenesis, as well as oncogenes and tumor suppressors, in various human cancers (1, 13), it is not surprising that homeobox genes have been implicated in regulating the phenotypic changes that ECs undergo when during angiogenesis (4-6, 25, 47-49, 51). In particular, one diverged homeobox genes, Gax (Growth Arrest-specific homeoboX, whose mouse homologue is known as Mox-2), has several characteristics that implicate it as potentially having an important role as an inhibitor of the EC phenotypic changes that occur in response to stimulation by proangiogenic or proinflammatory factors (10, 27, 54, 59, 66, 67). Originally isolated from vascular smooth muscle (27) and widely expressed in mesoderm and muscle precursors in the embryo (9, 25, 58), in the adult Gax expression is mostly restricted to the cardiovascular system and kidney (27, 58). In vascular smooth muscle cells, Gax expression is downregulated by mitogens and upregulated by growth arrest signals (27, 66, 68). Consistent with this observation, Gax expression induces  $G_1$  cell cycle arrest (59) and inhibits vascular smooth muscle cell migration, modulating expression integrin expression (67). In vivo, Gax expression in arteries inhibits proliferative restenosis of the arterial lumen after injury (42, 54, 59). Recently, we have observed that Gax has similar effects on EC phenotype, such as inhibition of proliferation associated with the induction of p21 expression (25). In addition, Gax strongly inhibits VEGF-induced EC tube formation on reconstituted basement membrane (25), suggesting that Gax may be a negative regulator of the phenotypic changes that ECs undergo when they become activated or angiogenic.

Until now, we had not identified potential mechanisms by which *Gax* might accomplish its inhibition of EC activation, other than a general cell cycle arrest due to induction of p21 (25, 59). In this report, we now describe how *Gax* expression is regulated in ECs by proangiogenic

The homeobox gene Gax inhibits endothelial cell activation and nuclear factor  $\kappa B$  activity and proinflammatory factors and how its expression can block EC activation in vitro and angiogenesis in vitro and in vivo. Finally, we provide evidence that Gax inhibits nuclear factor- $\kappa B$  (NF- $\kappa B$ ) signaling in ECs. Given that there is now considerable evidence that activation of NF- $\kappa B$  activity in ECs is proangiogenic (39, 40, 43, 46, 52, 56, 57), this interaction likely represents one potential mechanism by which Gax expression may inhibit angiogenesis,. This interaction, to our knowledge the first described in ECs, may represent a new mechanism by which homeobox genes can interact with intracellular signaling pathways and thereby inhibit angiogenesis.

#### **METHODS**

#### Cell culture and expression constructs

Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) were obtained from BioWhittaker (Walkersville, MD) and cultured according to the manufacturer's instructions in EGM-2 medium, also obtained from BioWhittaker. HMEC-1 cells were obtained from the Centers for Disease Control and were cultured as described (2).

The construction of replication-deficient adenoviral vectors expressing the rat and human homologs of *Gax* (Ad.*hGax* and Ad.*rGax*, respectively) conjugated to the α-hemagluttinin (HA) epitope has been described previously (59). In this study, both human and rat isoforms of *Gax* were used, in order to verify that both isoforms have similar activity. The control replication-deficient adenoviral vector expressing green fluorescent protein (Ad.*GFP*) was a kind gift of Dr. Daniel Medina (The Cancer Institute of New Jersey, New Brunswick, NJ). As a positive control for inhibition of angiogenesis *in vivo* by a viral vector, we utilized an additional adenoviral construct expressing a form of Akt (T308A, S473A, adenoviral construct designated Ad.DN.Akt) that functions in a dominant negative fashion (22, 50), kindly provided by Dr.

Kenneth Walsh (Boston University). Viral titers were measured by plaque assay. Expression of Gax mRNA and protein in cells transduced with these adenoviral constructs were verified by quantitative real time PCR according to methods described below and Western blot utilizing anti-HA antibody (not shown).

## Quantitative reverse transcriptase real time polymerase chain reaction (QRT-PCR)

After treatment as described individually for each experiment, total RNA was isolated from ECs using a spin-column with on-column DNase digestion to remove contaminating genomic DNA (RNAeasy, Qiagen). First strand synthesis was performed on the total RNA also using oligo-dT primers (Superscript kit, Invitrogen). Message levels for *Gax* and the endothelial cell adhesion molecules (E-selectin, VCAM-1, and ICAM-1) were then determined by quantitative real time RT-PCR utilizing TaqMan probes (8). QRT-PCR was carried out using a Cepheid SmartCycler thermocycler, with the associated SmartCycler v.2.0 software used to analyze the data and determine the threshold count (C<sub>1</sub>).

Primer and probe sets for each gene were designed using the MacVector 7.2 software package (Accelrys, San Diego, CA). The fluorophore used was 6-FAM and Black Hole Quencher-1 (BHQ-1, Biosearch Technologies, Novato, CA). Sequences of the primers and probes were: *Gax*: 5'-TCA GAA GTC AAC AGC AAA CCC AG-3' (forward), 5'-CCA GTT CCT TTT CCC GAG-3' (reverse), 5'-(6-FAM)-TGG TTC CAA AAC AGG CGG ATG-3'-(BHQ1) (TaqMan probe), amplicon = 238 bp; E-Selectin: 5'-CTC TGA CAG AAG AAG CCA AG3' (forward), 5'-ACT TGA GTC CAC TGA AGT CA -3' (reverse), 5'-(6-FAM)-CCA CGC AGT CCT CAT CTT TTT G-3'-(BHQ1) (TaqMan probe), amplicon = 255 bp; VCAM-1: 5'-ATG ACA TGC TTG AGC CAG G -3' (forward), 5'-GTG TCT CCT TCT TTG ACA CT-3' (reverse), 5'-(6-FAM)-CAC TTC CTT TCT GCT TCT TCC AGC-3'-(BHQ1) (TaqMan probe),

amplicon = 260 bp; ICAM-1: 5'-TAT GGC AAC GAC TCC TTC T-3' (forward), 5'-CAT TCA GCG TCA CCT TGG -3' (reverse), 5'-(6-FAM)-CCT TCT GAG ACC TCT GGC TTC G-3'-(BHQ1) (TaqMan probe), amplicon = 238 bp. To correct for differences in RNA quality and quantity between samples, the target gene was normalized to glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) message levels. Sequences of the GAPDH primer and probe set were: 5'-ACA ACT TTG GTA TCG TGG AAG-3' (forward); 5'-CAG ATG AGG CAG GGA TGA TGT TC -3' (reverse); 5'-(6-FAM)-ACC CAG AAG ACT GTG GAT GG-3'-(BHQ1) (TaqMan probe), amplicon = 138 bp. For some experiments (Figure 1), a set of primers for human *Gax* previously described were used (25).

Reaction mixtures for QRT-PCR were 25 μl, containing 0.75 U *Taq* polymerase (Invitrogen), reaction buffer, 0.2 mM dNTPs, plus optimized concentrations of MgCl<sub>2</sub>, probe, and primers. For all reactions, negative controls were run with no template present, and random RNA preparations were also subjected to sham QRT-PCR (no reverse transcriptase) to verify lack of contamination with genomic DNA. The PCR cycle started with an initial 1.5 minute denaturation step at 95° C, followed by 30 to 40 cycles of denaturation at 95° C for 10 seconds; annealing at 50° (VCAM-1), 52° (E-selectin, ICAM-1), 56° (*Gax*, GAPDH) for 20 seconds; and extension at 72° C for 30 seconds. Each sample was run in triplicate and C<sub>1</sub> determined for the target gene. Target gene mRNA levels ere estimated and normalized to GAPDH mRNA levels using the ΔΔC<sub>1</sub> method, as we have done previously (26, 31).

#### Migration assays

Prior to the experiment cell culture membranes and flasks were coated with sterile 0.1% gelatin in PBS. HUVECs were infected with adenoviral vectors at MOI=100 for 16 hours before  $5 \times 10^4$  cells/well were plated onto 8.0 µm pore size polycarbonate membrane in 24 well plates.

Cells were allowed to attach for one hour in EGM-2 medium. Once the cells had attached, the medium in the upper chamber was replaced with low serum medium (LSM, which consisted of EGM-2 + 0.1% FBS lacking VEGF, bFGF, and EGF), and the lower chamber with LSM supplemented with either 50 ng/ml VEGF, 50 ng/ml bFGF, 15 ng/ml TNF (VEGF, bFGF, and TNF-α all obtained from R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN), or 10% FBS. After 5 hours the inserts were washed with PBS and the upper surfaces cleaned with a cotton swab to remove any cells that had not migrated. Finally the cells were fixed with Diff-Quik® Stain (Dade Behring, Deerfield, IL) and the inserts washed in PBS and photographed for counting. Cells were counted in five high powered fields (hpf) per well. Experiments were repeated at least three times.

#### In vivo angiogenesis assay

The formation of new blood vessels *in vivo* was assayed by the Matrigel plug assay as described previously (36, 50). These experiments were performed under a protocol approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at UMDNJ-Robert Wood Johnson Medical School, and this research has complied with all relevant federal guidelines and institutional policies. In brief, cold Low Growth Factor Matrigel (BD Pharmingen, San Diego, CA, 500 µl/mouse) containing bFGF 400 ng/ml (R & D Systems, Minneapolis, MN), heparin 10 U/ml (Sigma, St. Louis, MO), and 10<sup>8</sup> pfu of either Ad.GFP, Ad.hGax, or Ad.rGax was injected subcutaneously in C57BL/6 mice (N=8 per experimental group). As a positive control for angiogenesis inhibition by a viral vector, we utilized an adenoviral construct expressing a dominant negative form of Akt (Ad.DN.Akt) provided by Dr. Kenneth Walsh (see above), which has previously been used to show that inhibition of Akt signaling inhibits angiogenesis *in vivo* (50). As another control, to verify that adenovirus itself does not significantly alter *in vivo* angiogenesis as measured by this assay, plugs containing only bFGF were also examined.

After 14 days, the mice were euthanized by CO<sub>2</sub> inhalation followed by cervical dislocation, and the plugs carefully removed en bloc with surrounding connective tissue. Tissue and plugs were fixed for 10 minutes in cold acetone and frozen sections made. Tissue sections were cut at 5 µm and their endogenous peroxidase activity blocked with dilute H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Sections were then blocked with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) for 15 minutes, washed with PBS, and then incubated with rat anti-mouse CD31 (PECAM) monoclonal antibody (BD PharMingen, San Diego, CA) at a 1:20 dilution in 1%BSA in PBS) overnight. Sections were then washed with cold PBS twice and incubated with Biotinylated mouse anti-rat IgG<sub>1/2a</sub> (BD PharMingen, San Diego, CA) in 1% BSA/PBS at 1:400 dilution. Color was then developed with streptavidinperoxidase (VectaStain, ABC Kit, Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). Sections were counterstained with Toluidine Blue and vessel counts performed as previously described (44, 50). In brief, vascular hot spots were located for each plug near the interface between the plug and surrounding stroma, and blood vessel density estimated as the number of vessels per highpowered field. The fields chosen for each plug section were all located at the plug-stroma interface. Two sections from each plug were made and at least five high-powered fields per section were counted, and the mean ± standard error of the mean determined for each experimental group. The experiment was repeated twice. Statistical differences were determined by one-way ANOVA using Prism v.4.0 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA), followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test using the Ad.GFP group as the control.

#### cDNA microarray studies

We compared global gene expression in control HUVECs transduced with Ad.GFP with that of HUVECs transduced with Ad.rGax or Ad.hGax. Cells were transduced at an MOI=100, incubated 24 hours in normal media, then harvested for total RNA isolation as described above

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for quantitative real time RT-PCR. RNA quality was verified by electrophoresis through formaldehyde-containing agarose gels prior to use for generating probes for cDNA microarray analysis. Exogenous *Gax* expression was verified by real time quantitative RT-PCR and Western blot (data not shown). Global gene expression was then compared in two separate experiments using the Affymetrix Human Genome U133A GeneChip<sup>®</sup> array set and standard protocols supplied by the manufacturer, with technical assistance from the cDNA Microarray Core Facility of The Cancer Institute of New Jersey. This chip contains probe sets for over 33,000 known genes, along with probes for housekeeping genes for normalization and genomic DNA for evaluation of hybridization quality. Results were further analyzed with GeneMAPP (19) to identify signal-dependent changes in gene expression.

#### Western blots

Whole cell extracts from TNF-α treated HUVECs were electrophoresed on 8% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and transferred to polyvinylidene diflouride membranes. The membranes were placed in blocking solution (PBS containing 5% non-fat dry milk and 0.1% Tween-20) for 1 hour or overnight at 4° C before being incubated with the appropriate dilution of primary antibody (mouse monoclonal anti-VCAM-1 and anti-ICAM-1 and rabbit polyclonal anti-E-selectin; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA) in blocking solution for 1-2 hours. Blots were then washed 3 times with blocking solution and incubated for 1 hour in secondary antibody (goat anti-mouse IgG or goat anti-rabbit IgG; Pierce Biotechnology, Inc., Rockford, IL) at a dilution of 1:5000 before being washed 2 times with blocking. A final wash of PBS with 0.1% Tween-20 for 5 minutes was done prior to visualization by chemiluminescence using the ECL-Plus reagent (Amersham, Piscataway, NJ).

#### Flow cytometry

Cells were harvested after the relevant treatment and resuspended in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.1% sodium azide. Approximately 1 x 10<sup>5</sup> cells were incubated with FITC-conjugated primary antibody against human E-selectin, VCAM-1, or ICAM-1 (BD Biosciences, San Diego, CA) for 30 minutes on ice. Cells were pelleted and washed twice in PBS/Azide prior to flow analysis on a Beckman-Coulter Cytomics FC500 flow cytometer (Fullerton, CA).

#### Electrophoretic mobility shift assays

HUVEC cells were transduced with Ad.GFP or Ad.rGax and then induced with 10 ng/ml TNF-α for 1 hour. Nuclear extracts were prepared with the NE-PER nuclear extraction reagent (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford IL). Biotin end-labeled double-stranded oligonucleotides containing the NF-κB consensus sequence, 5'-biotin-AGT TGA GGG GAC TTT CCC AGG C-3' were purchased from IDT technologies - Idaho. The binding reactions contained 6-8 μg of nuclear extract protein, buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 50 mM KCl, 1 mM dithiothreitol), 1 μg of poly(dl-dC), 5μg BSA and 20 fM of biotin-labeled DNA. The reactions were incubated at room temperature for 20 min. The competition reactions were performed by adding up to 200-fold excess unlabeled double-stranded NF-κB consensus oligonucleotide to the reaction mixture. Other controls included competition with random oligonucleotide (5'-TAG CAT ATG CTA-3') and an NF-κB site with a point mutation that abolishes DNA binding (5'CAC AGT TGA GGC CAC TTT CCC AGG C-3'). The reactions were electrophoresed on a 6% acrylamide gel at 100 V for 1 h in 0.5X Tris-borate-EDTA buffer. The reactions were transferred to positively charged nylon membrane. Biotinylated oligonucleotides were detected with streptavidin linked horseradish peroxidase and the Pierce LightShift kit (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL).

#### RESULTS

Gax expression is rapidly downregulated by mitogens and proangiogenic factors in ECs

Given our previous observations that *Gax* expression inhibits EC proliferation and tube formation *in vitro* (25), we first wished to determine how *Gax* expression is regulated by growth factors and proangiogenic peptides in ECs. Because endogenous *Gax* message is usually expressed at relatively low levels in VSMCs and ECs (25, 27), we developed a quantitative real time PCR assay using *Gax*-specific primers and a TaqMan probe (33) (see Methods). First, we studied the time course of *Gax* downregulation. HUVECs made quiescent by incubation for 24 hrs in 0.1% FBS were stimulated with 10% FBS plus 5 ng/ml VEGF. *Gax* was rapidly downregulated by 5-fold within four hours and slowly returned to basal over 24 to 48 hours (Figure 1, A and C). Conversely, when sparsely plated randomly cycling HUVECs were placed in medium containing 0.1% serum, *Gax* was upregulated nearly 10-fold within 24 hours (Figure 1B). We then stimulated quiescent HUVECs with proangiogenic or proinflammatory factors, including bFGF, VEGF, and TNF-α. *Gax* was rapidly downregulated with a similar time course (Figure 2). Similar results were observed in HMEC-1 cells (2), an immortalized human microvascular endothelial cell line that retains many characteristics of microvascular endothelial cells (data not shown).

Next, we compared the efficacy of serum and different proangiogenic factors at downregulating Gax expression in quiescent HUVECs (Figure 3). At 4 hours, serum and all growth factors tested downregulated Gax similarly (Figure 2 and Figure 3, A and B). However, at 24 hours, serum, VEGF, and TNF- $\alpha$  tend to be more potent at downregulating Gax than bFGF (Figure 2 and Figure 3, C and D), although this may be because bFGF requires a higher concentration than VEGF (Figure 3D). Finally, if Gax downregulation is a necessary molecular

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event that allows ECs to become activated by tumor-secreted proangiogenic factors, we hypothesized that tumor-secreted factors would also downregulate *Gax* expression *in vitro* and *in vivo*. We therefore incubated breast cancer cell lines in serum-free medium for 24 hours, harvested the conditioned medium, and stimulated quiescent HUVECs with the media for 4 hours. The cell lines varied considerably in their ability to downregulate *Gax*, but all of them downregulated *Gax* expression at least three-fold, and some by as much as 20-fold (Figure 4), suggesting that tumor-secreted proangiogenic factors also regulate *Gax* expression.

#### Gax expression inhibits endothelial cell migration towards proangiogenic factors

Migration of ECs through the basement membrane and into the surrounding stroma in response to proangiogenic stimuli is a critical step in tumor-induced angiogenesis. We therefore tested the ability of Gax to inhibit EC migration towards proangiogenic factors. HUVECs were transduced with Ad.rGax or Ad.hGax at varying MOI and incubated overnight.  $10^5$  viable cells per well were plated in 6-well plates with inserts containing 8  $\mu$ m polycarbonate filters, and we measured their migration towards serum-containing media in the lower chamber. Ad.rGax strongly inhibited the migration of HUVECs towards serum, VEGF, bFGF, and TNF- $\alpha$  (Figure 5), as did Ad.hGax (data not shown). Both homologs also inhibited migration of HMEC-1 cells towards bFGF and VEGF (data not shown).

#### Gax expression inhibits in vivo angiogenesis

Matrigel containing proangiogenic factors, when implanted subcutaneously in mice, can stimulate the ingrowth of blood vessels into the Matrigel plug from the surrounding tissue, and this neovascularization can be estimated by counting CD31-positive cells (36, 50) and/or by measuring hemoglobin concentrations in the plug (35). Moreover, adenoviral vectors diluted in Matrigel implanted as subcutaneous plugs can serve as reservoirs to transduce ECs invading the

plug and drive expression of exogenous genes, producing effects on *in vivo* angiogenesis even when the gene transduced is a transcription factor (55). We took advantage of this observation to test whether exogenously driven *Gax* expression can inhibit angiogenesis *in vivo*, using methodology previously described (36, 50). Matrigel plugs containing bFGF and either Ad.GFP, Ad.hGax, or Ad.rGax (see Methods) were injected subcutaneously in C57BL/6 mice (N=8 per experimental group). As a positive control for angiogenesis inhibition by a viral vector, we utilized an adenoviral construct expressing a dominant negative form of Akt (Ad.DN-Akt) (22, 50). We observed that the adenoviral vectors expressing *Gax* expression inhibit the neovascularization of the plugs with a potency slightly less than that observed for the Ad.DN-Akt construct (Figure 6), and that the Ad.DN.Akt construct inhibited neovascularization with a potency similar to what has previously been reported (22, 50).

## Gax expression downregulates the expression of NF-kB target genes

Next, we compared global gene expression in control HUVECs infected with Ad.GFP with that of HUVECs infected with Ad.rGax. Cells were infected at an MOI=100, incubated 24 hours in normal media, then harvested for total RNA isolation. Global gene expression was compared in two separate experiments using the Affymetrix Human Genome U133A GeneChip® array set (see Methods). In general, the global changes in gene expression induced by Gax in this experiment were consistent with an anti-proliferative, antiangiogenic activity. There were 127 probe sets corresponding to known genes showing greater than two-fold upregulation and 115 showing greater than two-fold downregulation. Differences in gene expression between controls and Gax-transduced cells ranged from upregulation by approximately 30-fold to downregulation by 238-fold. This pattern was similar in ECs transduced by Ad.hGax, although the magnitude of changes in gene expression tended to be smaller (data not shown).

We first examined genes that were downregulated 24 hours after transduction of HUVECs with Ad.rGax and were immediately struck by the number of CXC chemokines strongly downregulated (Table 1, which shows selected genes that are most strongly downregulated after Gax expression and/or most likely to be involved in angiogenesis). Most strongly downregulated of all was GRO- $\alpha$  (CXCL1), a CXC chemokine and a growth factor for melanoma that has also been implicated in promoting angiogenesis (41). Similarly, several other CXC chemokines were also strongly downregulated by Gax expression. Many of these peptides are clearly important in mediating EC activation during inflammation and in promoting angiogenesis (18). Consistent with the hypothesis that Gax inhibits EC activation, we also observed the downregulation of several cell adhesion molecules known to be upregulated in ECs during activation and angiogenesis, including vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), and E-selectin (37, 69), all of whose downregulation we have now also confirmed by quantitative real time PCR, Western blot, and flow cytometry (Figure 7). These proteins have all been implicated in leukocyte-EC interactions and are upregulated by pro-inflammatory factors and by VEGF during angiogenesis (37). The pattern of downregulation of these adhesion molecules, coupled with the downregulation of CXC chemokines, suggested to us inhibition of genes normally induced by TNF-α, which in turn suggested the possibility that Gax may inhibit nuclear factor κB (NF-κB) activity. Indeed, when we examined our data using GeneMAPP (19) to look for patterns of signal-dependent gene regulation, we found numerous NF-κB-dependent genes (23) downregulated 24 hrs after Gax expression (Table 2).

The genes upregulated by *Gax* did not fall into any signal-dependent patterns as striking as the genes downregulated by *Gax* (Table 3). However, we did note results that might suggest

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specific pathways upregulated by Gax. First, there was a strong upregulation of ALK3 (bone morphogenetic receptor 1a) (34). Although it is known that, in ECs, ALK1 activates ECs through a SMAD1/5 pathway, whereas ALK5 inhibits EC activation through a SMAD2/3 pathway (30), it is not known what role, if any, ALK3 plays in regulating EC phenotype. Second, we noted the upregulation of three CDK inhibitors, p19<sup>INK4D</sup>, p57<sup>Kip2</sup>, and p21<sup>WAF1/CIP1</sup> (11, 59, 62), suggesting redundant mechanisms by which Gax can induce  $G_1$  cell cycle arrest. Finally, we note that Frizzled-2 was upregulated. Little is known about the potential role of Frizzled receptors and Wnt signaling in regulating postnatal angiogenesis, although Frizzled-2 is known to be expressed in ECs (24) and there is evidence suggesting Wnt signaling inhibits EC proliferation (14).

#### Gax expression blocks NF-kB binding to its consensus DNA-binding sequence

Given that NF- $\kappa$ B activity has been implicated in the changes in phenotype and gene expression ECs undergo during angiogenesis caused by VEGF, TNF- $\alpha$ , and other factors, and that a number of NF- $\kappa$ B targets have been implicated in inducing angiogenesis (39, 40, 43, 46, 52, 56, 57), we wished to confirm the finding from cDNA microarray studies that *Gax* inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B activity in ECs. We therefore performed EMSAs utilizing nuclear extracts from HUVECs transduced with either Ad.r*Gax* or the control adenoviral vector Ad.GFP to measure binding to a probe containing an NF- $\kappa$ B consensus sequence (61). Specific binding to NF- $\kappa$ B consensus sequence by nuclear extracts from HUVECs transduced with Ad.*Gax* and then induced with TNF- $\alpha$  (10 ng/ml) was much reduced compared to that observed in controls (Figure 8), implying that *Gax* expression interferes with the binding of NF- $\kappa$ B to its consensus sequence.

#### DISCUSSION

Interactions between tumor and stroma, particularly the ability of tumors to induce angiogenesis, are critical to tumor progression and metastasis (21). At the EC level, the process of angiogenesis involves complex temporally coordinated changes in phenotype and global gene expression in response to alterations in the balance between pro- and anti-angiogenic factors. The stimuli for these changes are communicated from the surface of ECs to the nucleus through multiple overlapping signaling pathways. The peptide factors and the receptors they bind to that activate these pathways have been the subject of intense study over the last decade, because the importance of aberrant EC activation and angiogenesis to the pathogenesis of not just cancer, but of other diverse human diseases, such as atherosclerosis, diabetic retinopathy, psoriasis, and others, has become more apparent (20). Because blocking aberrant angiogenesis has the potential to be an effective strategy to treat or prevent multiple diseases,, understanding how downstream transcription factors integrate upstream signals from pro- and anti-angiogenic factors to alter global gene expression and produce the activated, angiogenic phenotype, has become increasingly important.

Homeobox genes represent a class of transcription factors that, given their ubiquitous roles in controlling body plan formation during embryogenesis, organogenesis, cell proliferation and differentiation, and numerous other important cellular processes (1, 13, 28), would be expected to be involved in regulating the conversion of a quiescent, unactivated EC to the activated, angiogenic phenotype. Indeed, several HOX genes have been implicated in this process. For example, *HOXA9* produces an EC-specific isoforms (*HOXA9EC*), whose expression is downregulated by TNF-α, but whose function is as yet unknown (53). *HOXA9* itself, however, has recently been implicated in inducing migration and tube formation through by upregulating

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the EphB4 receptor (6). Two paralogues, HOXD3 and HOXB3, have been shown to induce an angiogenic phenotype (4, 5, 48), HOXD3 through its upregulation of integrins  $\alpha_V\beta_3$  and  $\alpha_5\beta_1$  and urokinase plasminogen activator (4, 5) and HOXB3 through its inhibition of ephrin A1 ligand expression (48). In contrast, HOXD10 inhibits the angiogenic phenotype through an as yet undefined mechanism, producing changes in global gene expression consistent with a quiescent, nonangiogenic phenotype (49). Less is known about the involvement of homeobox genes outside the four HOX clusters in regulating angiogenesis. However, at least one such gene, Hex, inhibits EC activation and tube formation, and decreases flk-1/KDR expression in ECs (47, 51). These observations are all consistent with an important role for homeobox genes in regulating the transition to the activated, angiogenic phenotype.

Based on our data in this report, we postulate that at least one additional homeobox gene, Gax, is also likely to have an important role in regulating EC angiogenesis. We originally isolated Gax from a rat aorta library (27), and subsequently we and others found that in the adult its expression is restricted primarily to mesodermal tissues, particularly the cardiovascular system (10, 27, 58). Moreover, Gax expression is rapidly downregulated by growth factors and more slowly upregulated by growth arrest signals in VSMCs both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (27, 66, 68), and its expression results in cell cycle arrest (59), p21 induction (59), inhibition of migration (67), and modulation of integrin expression (67). *In vivo*, Gax expression in injured vasculature prevents the proliferative response that leads to restenosis after balloon angioplasty (42, 59). Based on these observations, we examined Gax expression in vascular ECs. We found that Gax is expressed in this cell type and that it has many of the same activities as in VSMCs. In addition, its expression inhibited EC tube formation on Matrigel *in vivo* (25). These observations led us to the present study, in which we wished to elucidate further the role(s) Gax may have in regulating

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angiogenesis. Consistent with its regulation in VSMCs, in ECs, *Gax* is rapidly downregulated by serum, proangiogenic, and pro-inflammatory factors (Figures 1 through 4), and is able to inhibit EC migration in vitro (Figure 5) and angiogenesis *in vivo* (Figure 6) These observations led us to examine the mechanism by which *Gax* inhibits EC activation utilizing cDNA microarrays to examine global changes in gene expression due to *Gax*. In addition to observing that Gax upregulates cyclin kinase inhibitors (Table 3) and downregulates a number of proangiogenic factors (Tables 1 and 2), we also found that Gax inhibits the expression of a number of NF-κB target genes (Table 2). Consistent with the cDNA microarray data, Gax inhibits the binding of NF-κB to its consensus sequence (Figure 8).

The NF-κB/Rel proteins are an important class of transcriptional regulators that play a central role in modulating the immune response and promoting inflammation and cancer by regulating the expression of genes involved in cell growth, differentiation, and apoptosis (23). In many cell types, NF-κB promotes cell survival in response to pro-apoptotic stimuli, induces cellular proliferation, or alters cell differentiation (23). The NF-κB/Rel family is composed of at least five mammalian homologs, c-Rel, RelA (p65), RelB, p50/p105 (NF-κB1), and p52/p100 (NF-κB2), which form an array of homo- and heterodimers, known as the NF-κB complex (23). In most cell types, NF-κB exists in the cytoplasm as an inactive form bound to inhibitory proteins known as IκBs. In the classical pathway of NF-κB activation, NF-κB inducers, such as TNF-α and other proinflammatory cytokines, growth factors, UV light, oxidative stress, and bacterial lipopolysaccharide, initiate a signaling cascade ultimately leading to the nuclear translocation of p50/RelA heterodimers, resulting from signal-induced phosphorylation of IκB by IκB kinase (IKK), which targets it for ubiquitination (17, 23). In addition to this classical

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pathway of NF-κB activation, a non-canonical pathway involving activation of p52-containing dimmers through regulated processing of the p100 precursor protein (17, 23).

Several lines of evidence have implicated NF- $\kappa$ B activity in regulating EC phenotype during inflammation and angiogenesis and, in particular, the classic activation of RelA-containing heterodimers (39, 40, 43, 52, 56, 57). For example, proangiogenic factors such as VEGF (37), TNF- $\alpha$  (64), and platelet-activating factor (40) can all activate NF- $\kappa$ B signaling and activity in ECs. In addition, inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activity inhibits EC tube formation *in vitro* on Matrigel (29, 57), and pharmacologic inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activity suppresses retinal neovascularization *in vivo* in mice (70). Moreover, ligation of EC integrin  $\alpha\nu\beta_3$  by osteopontin protects ECs against apoptosis induced by serum withdrawal (56), an effect that is due to NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent expression of osteoprotogerin (43). Similarly,  $\alpha_5\beta_1$ -mediated adhesion to fibronectin also activates NF- $\kappa$ B signaling and is important for angiogenesis, and inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B signaling may promote angiogenesis is through an autocrine effect, whereby activation of NF- $\kappa$ B induces expression of proangiogenic factors such as VEGF, as has been reported for platelet-activating factor-induced angiogenesis (40). Alternatively, the involvement of NF- $\kappa$ B in activating EC survival pathways is also likely to be important for sustaining angiogenesis (29).

Although NF-κB activity can influence the expression of homeobox genes (7, 53), there have been relatively few reports of functional interactions between homeodomain-containing proteins and NF-κB proteins. The first such interaction reported was between IκBα and HOXB7, where IκBα was found to bind through its ankyrin repeats to the HOXB7 protein and potentiate HOXB7-dependent gene expression (12). More recently, it was reported that IκBα can also potentiate the activity of other homeobox genes, including *Pit-1* and *Pax-8*, through the

sequestration of specific histone deacetylases (65). In contrast, Oct-1 can compete with NF- $\kappa$ B for binding to a specific binding site in the TNF- $\alpha$  promoter (63). In addition, at least one interaction has been described in which a homeobox gene directly inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent gene expression, an interaction in which Cdx2 blocks activation of the COX-2 promoter by binding p65/RelA (38). It remains to be elucidated if *Gax* inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent gene expression by a similar mechanism. Regardless of the mechanism, however, this report represents to our knowledge the first description of a homeobox gene that not only inhibits phenotypic changes that occur in ECs in response to proangiogenic factors, but also inhibits NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent gene expression in vascular ECs. These properties suggest *Gax* as a potential target for the antiangiogenic therapy of cancer or other diseases in which aberrantly increased angiogenesis is an important mechanism of pathogenesis. In addition, understanding the actions of *Gax* on downstream target genes, signals that activate or repress *Gax* expression, and how *Gax* regulates NF- $\kappa$ B activity in ECs is likely to lead to a better understanding of the mechanisms of tumor-induced angiogenesis and the identification of new molecular targets for the antiangiogenic therapy of cancer.

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